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CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
NOTES	225	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES (<i>continued</i>):		REVIEWS:	
LEADING ARTICLES:		Mr. Armstrong's "Gainsborough." By		The Vulgate	241
Triumphant Mediocrity	229	D. S. M.	234	Letters of the Brownings	242
Army Experts and Amateurs	229	The Dreary Concert Season. By J. F. R.	236	Chronicles of Africa	244
Modern Caesarism	230	FINANCE	237	The Anatomy of Birds	244
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES:		CORRESPONDENCE:		The Black Book of an Amateur Herald	245
Shire Horses	231	West African Administration. By Miss		Pretty Conceits	246
Proposals for the Distribution of the		Mary H. Kingsley	240	A "Fairly True" Story	247
Home Army. II.	232	Popular Church History. By G. H. F.	240	Novels	247
Pinnerobertsoniana. By Max.	233	Nye	240	NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS	248
		Elementary Education. By a Board			
		School Mistress	241		

NOTES.

Lord Hugh Cecil never speaks but he also entertains. Sometimes it is the form which attracts, as at the Sixty Club dinner, on Thursday, sometimes the gist—generally both. In either case, it is the same creative force; it is something of the artist behind thought and words, which gives life to either. A peculiar charm—pity 'tis so rare; but it is much more than a charm. It means personal power; it is genius. And when such power accompanies conviction (perhaps it just means conviction), there is all the apparatus of a great man, but not necessarily of a great career; for that involves physical health as well.

Lord Hugh's proposal for strengthening the House of Lords by the inclusion of Nonconformist preachers was a delightfully clever move in debate. It checkmated the suggestion of exclusive privilege; it met destruction by construction; it inevitably made its mark by its amusing suggestion. Picture the popular preacher gasping in the atmosphere of the House of Lords. Conceive Mr. Hugh Price Hughes confronted with Dr. Creighton, or Mr. Fleming Williams translated from the County Council. Certainly, it would be all to the advantage of the Church to have these gentlemen in the Lords along with the Bishops. But surely the argument requires that Cardinal Vaughan should be there too, and "General" Booth and—where could we draw the line?

The Radicals have every reason to be annoyed at Mr. Balfour's scheme for the reform of Metropolitan local government. It destroys a political case of which they have for long made a very great deal. The House of Commons for the second time this session has corrected Albert Hall. It is now clear that there is no intention to break up London; the constitution of the County Council is not touched; the equalisation of rates is not impinged upon. Seeing that the scheme is wholly constructive and complementary to the existing central or county organisation, it was rather a pity that Mr. Balfour should have used some expressions which might be construed in a different sense. The plan of reform is distinctly good; it satisfies the historic peculiarities of our Metropolitan community; it opens the way to the only root reform of local government—the infusion of a better personnel—by securing due importance to the local bodies in respect of powers and population. It corrects confusion by assimilating local authority in the different areas. On the whole, we can accept this measure with gratitude by no means un-

mixed with relief. The local municipalities will not be merely "new vestries," though Mr. Balfour unhappily so described them.

The Money Lending Bill is defensible on the simple principle that the kind of contract it seeks to regulate is productive of more evil to the community than good. If the class of transactions aimed at could be completely stopped, no interests for a moment to be sympathetically considered would suffer. The false economics of the usury laws consisted in interfering with the legitimate transactions of commercial trading, and in confounding moneylenders of the type of the many-aliased gentry of to-day with the ordinary providers of credit to the producer, the manufacturer, and the buyer and seller of goods. The support due to the Bill is to be measured by the degree in which it can be shown that it will not interfere with the latter class; and this will need great care when the details of the Bill are under discussion. Some of the proposals are like those of the Pawnbrokers Acts or the Bills of Sale Acts, which with all their difficulty have been of benefit. We hope also for the extension of the co-operative banks Lord James mentioned in his speech.

Mr. Asquith must have again felt very much discouraged with the results of his championship of the principle of the Employers' Liability Act, plus abolition of the common employment doctrine, in face of the debate on the Address. Workmen's compensation, on the lines of the Act of 1897, is the principle of the future. The Government was asked to take a step backward, and it has answered that, on the contrary, it intends, when the proper time comes (which we hope may be soon), to go forward and deal with seamen as it has dealt with workmen in other dangerous trades. From the tone of the debate, and, we believe, from the tendency of public opinion, when the present law as to seamen has to be altered, there cannot be a doubt that the Government's view will win.

The scenes which have characterised the Presidential election in Paris are not to be accounted for by any mere reference to "Dreyfus" or "Panama." Nor are they an informal expression of universal dissatisfaction and discontent. They are the natural outcome of years of stupid idleness in the class that once ruled France, combined with utter indifference to public affairs on the part of the vast majority of respectable citizens. The aristocracy sulks in its tents, contributing nothing to the public service of the country: the bourgeoisie lets its

reputation for patriotism go by default, substituting callous inactivity for sullen opposition.

And, as a result, the tumult of an organised rabble can impose itself on the world as the genuine expression of French opinion at this crisis, and can secure demonstrations of hostility to the Chief of the State from the moment he left Versailles until he reached the very gates of the Elysée. Let it not be imagined that the fungus growth, the *Déroulède* claque, which has fastened upon the *Ligue des Patriotes*, is admired in France: let it not be forgotten that, for the disgraceful incidents of the past few days, Frenchmen have only this organised body and their own disorganised selves to thank.

However, the funeral procession was not desecrated by any of these scenes of rowdiness. M. *Déroulède*'s exploit only emphasises his sense of the eclipse under which he and his followers were labouring. All this but points the moral of our preceding remarks: the people are sound; they have no morbid inclination for the indecent in public life. They rather suffer from the over-respectability which always and everywhere tends to indifference to national matters. When the heart of the people is really moved, as it was on Thursday, they are very well able to prevent such outbreaks as disgraced the advent of M. Loubet. This does not in any way mitigate the danger of the habitual attitude of the French "*boni*." The new President is essentially "*honestus homo*;" can he not prevail on his kin to stir themselves to a little more love of country—we are afraid to say, patriotism?

The circular of the British Chamber of Commerce in Paris will go far to allay the apprehensions raised by the *Graüer-Frey* decision. It seems that the French Government has introduced a Bill into the Chamber of Deputies which will enable "designs or models of foreign origin to be deposited at the clerk's office of the Tribunal of Commerce of the Seine" for the whole of France, and will also allow an allegation as to the impossibility of manufacture and sale in French territory to be recorded in the certificate of registration, and reserved for consideration by the judges in the event of future litigation. This is something, but it is not the complete protection that foreign exhibitors at the 1900 Exhibition might reasonably hope for.

For some time the people of the United States have been sedulously taught by many of their newspapers and politicians that the professed friendship of England is wholly selfish. They have been assured that John Bull is too weak to fight his own battles, especially in the Far East, consequently he is desperately anxious to secure the help of the United States. This has vexed the sentimentalists in this country, and at last the London correspondent of the "*New York Times*" has protested. To this protest Mr. Andrew Carnegie replied that he and his friends have ample warrant for believing that England is anxious to get assistance from the States, and in proof he quoted a speech by Mr. Chamberlain. Thus challenged, Mr. Chamberlain denies that his words bear the interpretation put upon them. On the contrary, he maintains that England is able in all respects to defend her own interests without assistance. That is quite true, of course, as Mr. Carnegie should know, better than most Americans; but this misunderstanding is only another proof that the recent outburst of sentimentalism was misguided.

Viewing it from this side of the Atlantic, we can see that the M'Kinley Government is rapidly becoming discredited. The way in which it has mishandled the tariff question; the scandalous manner in which the maladministration of the War Office has been burked; the dishonest manœuvres by means of which the Peace Treaty was ratified—these are samples of the failures which have brought about its discredit. But assuredly the chief reason why the Government of the States has fallen in estimation is the flabbiness of Mr. M'Kinley. In his recent speeches at Boston, for instance, there was

a great deal of somewhat turgid rhetoric, but not a sign of statesmanship. A party politician of the most time-serving type could not have bestraddled the fence more circumspectly on the question of the Philippines. Happily, General Otis and his soldiers at Manila have a surer knowledge of what is due to the honour of their country than the politicians at Washington.

It is curious to find from Mr. Gibson Bowles' speech in the House of Commons that railway construction in the western parts of China is still cold-shouldered on account of the enormous engineering difficulties assumed to exist. Of course such statements are a mere reverberation of Lord Salisbury's astonishing statement to the deputation from the Associated Chambers of Commerce which waited on him last June. As a matter of fact, English and French engineers are in the field selecting the best paths for railways leading from Burma on the one hand, and from Tongking on the other, to Yunnan Fu, and thence to a navigable point on the Yang-tsze-kiang. Lord Salisbury's views were evidently based on his remembrance of the report given of the engineering difficulties of the Bhamo route by the late Mr. Colborne Baber. That, however, is not the route which would be taken by the railway. Lord Salisbury had apparently forgotten that three years previous to his receiving the deputation an officer of the Government of India's Intelligence Department had tracked out a route leading from Kunlon, the terminus of the Rangoon-Kunlon Railway, to Tali Fu, by which only one pass would have to be crossed, and that involving an ascent of only 2,400 feet in eighteen miles, and a descent of 1,766 feet in twelve miles.

In fact, the difficulties are found to be so comparatively slight that Mr. Bagley has estimated that the Kunlon-Yincho section, the most difficult section of the projected line to Tali Fu, would cost only £6,250 per mile—a rate one-third less than the estimated cost of the recently sanctioned French line from Tongking to Yunnan Fu. The distance by rail from Kunlon to Tali Fu would be less than 300 miles. Mr. Brodrick has told us that the Chinese have conceded us the right to construct 700 miles of railway in their province of Yunnan. The extra 400 miles would carry the railway far beyond Yunnan Fu towards the Yang-tsze, whether it took the roundabout way via Tali Fu, or the more direct and probably far easier route via Chintong. A turnpike toll equivalent to 10 and 11 per cent. on the value of our goods is charged on them when passing through Tongking. This charge alone, in the case of our cotton piece goods, would more than twice cover the cost of carriage from London to Yunnan Fu, if the Burma railway were continued to that place. Such a toll must tell heavily against the extension of British trade with Western China.

Rumours that the condition of the Amir's health is bad are an unfailing resource in India, when there is nothing new from Kabul. Significance, however, attaches to the report that the Europeans in his Highness' service are leaving Afghanistan or avoiding a return to it. Even Sir Salter Pyne has found it expedient to turn back from Peshawur, and is said to have finally severed his connexion with the Amir. His reported utterances are oracular. There is no doubt that, in the event of the Amir's death, the position of Europeans would be extremely precarious in a town rich in fanatics. Sir Salter Pyne, however, would seem to apprehend danger from those of higher rank than the wandering *ghâsi*.

In Sir George Bowen there has disappeared from the midst of colonial circles in London a striking personality. The measure of his services to the Empire is only known to those who have followed its developments in their more local phases. He belonged to the old order of colonial governor—the order, that is, which prepared the way for younger men who are mostly innocent of official experience and rely on their tact and social position for success in the rôle of figure-head. In various colonies his memory will long be cherished as that of a good and wise governor. In

Queensland it is revered as that of the sponsor of its autonomous existence. He was fond of relating how he inaugurated the government of the colony at a time when there was but 7½d. in the exchequer, which some unprincipled person appropriated. Sir George had a real gift for creative statesmanship. But he was something more than a colonial governor. He was an Imperial statesman, whose imagination was fired by acquaintance with classic example. He regarded himself as the proconsul of a newer and greater Rome.

Further information on the subject of a hospital ship to supplement the limited hospital accommodation in Egypt will be anxiously awaited after Colonel Lonsdale Hale's strong representations. It is disquieting to think that the expenditure of a portion of the money cheerfully spent in lionising the Sirdar through this country, and starting the Khartum College, would have saved many valuable lives. Economy is an excellent thing, no doubt, but it becomes an outrage if it is effected at the cost of human suffering and human lives.

The bare fact that the Hong Kong and Whampoa Dock Company will not take the responsibility of docking the battleship "Victorious" may not seem of much account. But the cause of the refusal is serious. So great is the beam measurement of this ship that there would be only six inches to spare at the dock entrance, and in the circumstances it would be a great risk to take the vessel into this dock, largest though it be in the China waters, and one of the largest in the world. The "Victorious" will, therefore, endeavour to navigate the Suez Canal—it is to be hoped without grounding again—in order that she may be docked in England. There are nine battleships in the navy, and ten others building, with the same disabilities as the "Victorious." At present, unless at Malta, there is no dock abroad which will accommodate these ships, but two are to be constructed at Gibraltar, that will do so.

A very satisfactory feature of the Army Estimates for 1899-1900 is the substantial increase of 40 officers, 1,000 men and 447 horses, which it is proposed to make in the Army Service Corps, one-half to be provided for this year. £10,000 more are to be spent on the Volunteers, the whole sum amounting to £624,000. It is to be hoped this will produce a corresponding increase of efficiency; but one of the principal defects from which the force suffers cannot, unfortunately, be removed by public money—the officers and men are too nearly on a footing of social equality. The Yeomanry alone, of all the other branches except the War Office, will come in for no increase of grant.

Never since Home Rule first came to the front, after the disestablishment of the Church thirty years ago, have things political been in such a state of utter confusion as at the present moment in Ireland. There is to be a "unity conference" held at Easter, but who is to unite or what they are to unite upon is the puzzle. When Mr. Dillon walks out of the House rather than vote for Home Rule because it is proposed by Mr. Redmond; and when Count Moore, who was driven out of the party by Mr. Parnell because he refused to sign the party pledge, is returned unpledged by the largest number of votes ever polled for a candidate in Derry city, party discipline is evidently extinct, and the Irish representation is lapsing back into the disjointed, backbonelless thing that it was before Mr. Parnell came into his kingdom. The English politician will rejoice, but we are not at all clear that this is a good thing either for England or for Ireland. The fact, however, has to be recorded that the Irish party, as we knew it in the eighties, has practically ceased to exist.

There is, indeed, no definite political issue before the Irish people. The County Council elections, the Industrial and Agricultural Co-operative movement, Financial Relations, and, of course, University Education, all excite discussion; but on not one of these is there any clear line of cleavage between Unionist and Nationalist, whilst the general prosperity, and the striking fact that emigration has fallen to a minimum, and that, in consequence, the population has once more begun to

increase after its half-century of retrogression, render anything like a revival of the agitation of 1879-80 impossible. Mr. Gerald Balfour has acted wisely in letting Mr. William O'Brien talk himself out in Mayo—it is well, said Sir Robert Peel, for the Government to be sometimes a little hard of hearing in Ireland—and his promised addition of 50 per cent. to the income of the Congested District Board will be an immense boon to the poorer districts in the West, where the policy of an extension of the holdings and an improvement in agricultural methods originated by the Board is the first necessity.

Some prominent men on the Liberal side have taken advantage of Mr. Balfour's invitation to lift the Irish University question out of the region of party politics, and Mr. Haldane has drafted a Bill which has already been submitted to some of those in Ireland chiefly concerned. The Irish Bishops are to meet next week to consider this draft scheme, which is virtually on the lines of Mr. Balfour's letter, and if, as is expected, they formally adopt it, it will be introduced either as a bill or a motion, and the Government will be asked to give a day for its discussion. Proposed from one side of the House and seconded from the other, the motion would doubtless be carried in spite of Protestant extremists, and obligation would be thrown on the Government to proceed with it; for the financial and other details of such a measure could only be fixed by a responsible Minister acting in concert with the Treasury. Meantime we regret to see that the Marquis of Londonderry, like Mr. Arnold Forster, has succumbed to the genius loci, and has been denouncing the proposal at a Conservative meeting in Belfast.

One of the unpleasant consequences of agitation is the opportunity for self-advertisement with which it provides notoriety-seekers, who in quiet times do not emerge from the obscurity to which nature seems to consign them. A Mr. Fillingham, Vicar of Hexton, having tried the project of "Protestant Communion" in Dissenting chapels, and been baffled partly by the honourable reluctance of the more religious Nonconformists to assist in such profanation of the Sacrament, partly by the contemptuous indifference of the public, has returned to the more familiar method of disturbing Divine Service. The protest which he read in S. Paul's Cathedral last Tuesday fell flat owing to the evident impatience of the congregation and the depressing influence of a considerable body of constables.

The only effect of the episode has been to call general attention to the broad and comprehensive spirit which evidently inspired the choice of the Lenten preachers at S. Paul's. Mr. Dolling and Canon McCormick are fair representatives of the oppugnant extremes, whose vagaries harass the bishops and amaze the public. Mr. Bernard Wilson of the Oxford House, and Mr. C. G. Lang of Portsea, are something more than excellent examples of parish priests, and Canon Armitage Robinson embodies that intellectual distinction which has always been considered the most honourable trait of the English clergy. The pulpit of S. Paul's will give a very fair representation of the teaching of the National Church.

The "crisis" does not prevent the Bishops in Convocation assembled from doing their work with business-like tranquillity. They have passed a very sensible resolution as to the Revised Version, a resolution endorsing the traditional Anglican attitude towards the Scriptures. For our part, we should be sorry to see the Authorised Version supplanted by the Revised, because of the inferiority of its English style; but its greater accuracy commends it to many among laity and clergy alike, and its use in churches, where there is a general feeling in its favour, ought not to be barred. What a relief it is to speak of an ecclesiastical proposal where High and Low do not come in!

The London School Board seems to have got itself into a pretty considerable mess over its teaching of science and other subjects beyond the scope of the Day School Code. For years this illegal expenditure of large

sums of money has been going on. Who is responsible, and who is to account for it? That the Board was exceeding its commission, and in its ambition to be something very big was gradually enclosing fields of instruction to which it had no title, has long since been the view of many educationists. That the ratepayer has thought the same does not count, because he would have believed it no less had the Board kept entirely within its right. We think that School Board members have wished to magnify their vocation. At the same time, we agree with Sir Charles Elliott that the Department has not treated them very fairly in allowing this sort of thing to go on all this time without effective interference. Surely if it was not desirable that such a growth should take place, the right thing was to nip it in the bud.

In the circumstances, too, it is quite conceivable that some enthusiasts honestly believed that they were serving the cause of education, when they were but retarding it. Secondary schools, or a secondary system and authority, there were none; so that the Board was not a trespasser, but merely an encroacher upon unclaimed land. It was not unnatural that some, in their anxiety to supply the deficiency, should make the mistake of stretching the powers of the existing primary authority, instead of compelling the creation of a secondary one, by refraining from setting up an illegal and unsatisfactory substitute. The educational mischief of the process has been that we have had neither primary nor secondary education, but a cross between them; the primary straining to be "higher grade," and the "higher grade" being always low, for want of an elementary foundation to build on.

It is pleasant to find something human in a blue book—or, more strictly speaking, a departmental return. Even the crowd of statistics classified in tables and summaries cannot squeeze out the human interest of the recently issued return, showing what became of the children who left elementary schools in 1894. What happens to them when they leave? is a question no one can help putting to himself when he goes into one of these schools, or observes the children swarming out or in, as he passes. In London, it appears that 94 per cent. of the boys went straight from school to some occupation, but only 57 per cent. of the girls. Nearly half the boys obtained places in some capacity which people generalise under the term "boy;" shops took the next largest contingent, and clerical work the third, happily not amounting to more than 8 per cent. of the whole. Curiously, not more than one girl in fifty went from school to a shop, while domestic service still claims about three times as many as any other occupation.

No one can deny the right of the London County Council to obtain a hearing for itself on the Amalgamation Bill of the South-Eastern and Chatham and Dover Railway Companies. That is what the opposition amounts to. The scheme materially affects London, and the Council, in its representative capacity, had to be there to protect metropolitan interests; and appearance could only be secured by petitioning against the Bill. What on earth could have induced some of the Progressives to spoil the Council's case by giving a wise and reasonable proposal a violently political turn? Really, their whips should keep Mr. Cornwall in order, and prevent him wasting time in claptrap abuse of the railway companies.

Would it not be possible for our County Councils to devise some means of co-ordinating their action in the enforcement of the Wild Birds' Protection Acts? At present the law lays down a certain minimum of protection for general application, and leaves it to each county to increase that minimum by local orders, with the result that every county has a standard and set of orders different from all the others. For example, we should like to see the excellent order which the Norfolk County Council has just submitted for approval to the Home Secretary adopted in every county. It is, that Sundays throughout the whole year should be added to

the close time for all species of wild birds. The first day of the week is a close time for game; why not also for wild birds generally? We should be well within the mark in saying that nine-tenths of the destruction that now goes on takes place on Sundays, when the prowling gunner has his day off.

It is so undesirable that the benefits of the Criminal Evidence Act should be denied prisoners by frightening them out of the box under threats of prosecution for perjury, that we notice with satisfaction that Mr. Justice Wright, at the recent Worcester Assizes, directed a bill against a prisoner for perjury to be postponed till the summer assizes. This course, we are also glad to learn, was approved by Mr. Justice Ridley, who had directed the prosecution; both judges thinking that the Queen's Bench Division should be consulted with the view of laying down some principle upon which prisoners should be indicted for perjury. Before Mr. Justice Wright a prisoner said, "I don't want to go into the box, because, if I do, and I'm found guilty, I'll have to suffer for two offences. I'll be sent to gaol twice."

The rumours that the Solicitor-General would be the new Lord Justice of Appeal have proved unfounded. Lord Halsbury, no doubt, felt bound to appoint a Chancery man, and his choice was rather restricted. There were two Chancery judges senior to Mr. Justice Romer, but one of them, Mr. Justice North, is said to contemplate retiring. Mr. Justice Stirling, prior in appointment, and Mr. Justice Romer's rival in legal and University reputation (both are Senior Wranglers and Smith's Prizemen), met with the fate of the strong man, in the parable. As a politician Mr. Romer had a career only as candidate—a common fate with Chancery barristers, though, or perhaps because, they are often very accomplished men. His new position affords him a refuge from the boredom of constantly trying Patent cases.

Mr. Cozens-Hardy, Q.C., the new judge, has been thirteen years in Parliament; but he is not on that account a real exception, any more than was Lord Davey, to the general rule as to Chancery barristers in political life. However, he has had a considerable amount of Radical influence in his constituency of North Norfolk, and his elevation brings on a somewhat doubtful election. He was a very successful advocate, and no one was more clearly entitled to go on the Chancery Bench. The Lord Chancellor did well in not allowing party remonstrance to interfere with the appointment of the best men, who happened to be Radicals.

The Torpids at Oxford showed some good racing this season, though the crews were hardly up to the average of the last two years. Balliol fairly easily maintained their position as head, never being really pressed by New College. B.N.C. 1 was perhaps the fastest of the boats, and, rowing very pluckily, bumped Trinity on Monday, Magdalen on Tuesday, and pressed New College hard on Wednesday. Merton did well, and Pembroke improved very much during the races, making five bumps, and finally getting safely into the first division, making their two bumps as Sandwich-boat on Tuesday. It was rather a bad sign that the lower crews were so poor, but difficulties of coaching, owing to the floods, may largely explain this. Two or three of the second boats were actually taken off before the races because they could not be properly coached.

The South of England has lost in the Rev. William Awdry, of Ludgershall, Wiltshire, its most famous sporting parson. Mr. Awdry was as great a foxhunter as the Rev. Jack Russell himself, and a grand sportsman in many fields. We believe it to be a fact that at one time Mr. Awdry knew the voice of every hound of note in the Tedworth Hunt, of which for so many years he was a well-known figure. His sixty-three years were crowded with what he would himself no doubt have described as glorious life. Oxford never produced a more ardent sportsman.

TRIUMPHANT MEDIOCRITY.

THERE is one aspect of M. Loubet's election to the Presidency which has an interest beyond that of the French politics of the moment. France, called upon once more to choose her most kingly man, as Ruskin might say, to reign over her, has chosen—M. Loubet. A highly respectable lawyer, upright, amiable, second-rate, whose abilities would scarcely have enabled him to rise to the highest rank in his own or any other profession, is the First Citizen of France, the formal representative before the world of the most brilliant people that the civilisation of modern Europe has produced. It is with no disrespect to the new President that we speak of him as a mediocrity. Most of us are mediocrities, and should be well content if we succeed in touching the middle standard of character and intellect, instead of sinking conspicuously below it. A decent average is an excellent thing in its way. The world would be none the worse if everybody was about as good, or as harmless, as M. Loubet or M. Faure; if we were all industrious, straightforward, conscientious in the discharge of public and private duties, and intelligently active. Men so qualified are not likely to be failures in any country or any station of life. One can imagine, without much effort, what the career of M. Loubet would have been in England. From his bourgeois environment at Montélimar he would probably have passed, with a scholarship, to one of the smaller colleges of Oxford or Cambridge. He would not have got the Ireland or come out as Senior Wrangler; but he would have taken a creditable degree, and if he escaped schoolmastering, he might have settled down steadily to the Bar, where provincial connections, with hard work and honest thoroughness, would gradually have secured him a practice and a fair income. Middle-age would have found him a reasonably prosperous Q.C., with a house in a South Kensington square, and the reputation of a sound lawyer in the Temple. Fortunately for ourselves, we grow such men rather easily in our professions, and their use is undeniable. The steady pedestrian virtues and abilities are not to be despised. But, after all, there is something else. Genius, talent, force of character, the power to lead, can never be common; but there are always some who possess these gifts, and they should be the leaders in politics and government. It would be absurd to pretend that such persons have been able to come to the front in either of the two great democratic republics of the modern world. That there are plenty of forceful and strikingly able men in both France and the United States we are ready to believe. The country that can produce in our own time a Rodin, a Zola, a Carolus Duran has not lost its creative power; and if America has not yet found its great native artists, it has put brains and energy enough into the work of industrial development to vindicate its character. In fact, both the Americans and the French are very clever people—far cleverer in many ways than ourselves. Yet with all their vivacious alertness, and with politics an open door, with “la carrière ouverte aux talents,” with a fair field and no favour, all monarchical and aristocratic “shackles” removed, the most able men do not emerge in public life. The rulers and statesmen of both countries are almost invariably persons of limited powers and moderate abilities. Look through the lists of leading French politicians for nearly thirty years, of the United States for twice that period, and what do you find? Hardly a single name of real eminence appears. At the best you get the colourless well-meaning man, of the Loubet, Faure, or Carnot type. Take away Lincoln, and possibly Gambetta and Jules Ferry, and it is no exaggeration to say that the majority of the American Presidents and State Secretaries, as of French Presidents and Premiers, could hardly have found a place, certainly not a high place, in any system which brought them into competition—we will not say with a Bismarck, a Beaconsfield, or a Randolph Churchill, but with such statesmen as Palmerston, as Lord John Russell, as Lord Salisbury, Mr. Arthur Balfour, or Lord Rosebery.

In this respect, at any rate, modern Democracy has falsified the predictions of its earlier patrons. The downfall of aristocratic government was welcomed by

our own pre-Reform-Bill Radicals, and by Continental Liberals everywhere, as the emancipation of intellect. Politics being no longer in the hands of the privileged class, the highest ability would be at the service of the State, and would find its level—at the top. By an elaborate process of selection, the duties and dignities of high public office would fall to the lot of those whom Plato desired to see as the “Guardians” of his ideal Republic. But this arrangement has not been carried out in the smallest degree. The wisest and the most able either do not seek, or do not find, the chief political posts in the Republic, as it exists on either side of the Atlantic. The “Guardians” are otherwise occupied. They are painting pictures, writing novels, building bridges, or making fortunes. It is left for the pushing lawyer, the successful engineer, the provincial trader, the ubiquitous journalist, the literary non marquée, to become Premier, President, or Minister of State.

One circumstance which the eulogists of theoretical democracy overlooked was that a person who can do anything really well naturally likes to go on doing it. In France, as elsewhere, most people start life in some profession or business which is not politics. If they are capable men, they succeed in their vocation, and do not care to give it up to “commence politics.” There is the gain of keeping an aristocratic and wealthy leisured class in public life; it supplies a body of men, trained to affairs, who can follow politics without being place-hunters, not compelled to “live by the altar.” But this is not the whole cause of the difference, not the complete explanation of the singular phenomenon that nations, abounding in intellectual energy of all kinds, seem scarcely able to find men of average ability to take charge of the national business. The truth is that for reasons, some of which we have indicated, while others must be looked for in a different direction, to the clever man in France and in the States the political game is not worth the candle; in England it is.

ARMY EXPERTS AND AMATEURS.

WE congratulate Lord Lansdowne on the good sense he has displayed in appointing Colonel Bainbridge to the position rendered vacant by the death of Sir William Anderson. That a man who has had practical experience of the weapons the Ordnance factories manufacture should be placed at the head of the Government workshops appears to most of us an arrangement as to the wisdom of which there could be no sort of doubt. But that there was doubt, and a pretty considerable struggle between the civilian and military element at the War Office, is only to be surmised from the delay and hesitancy exhibited in making the appointment which has just been announced. Whatever may have been the faults of the older system which Mr. Stanhope abolished, it cannot be denied that our Field Artillery had been allowed to lag behind that of the other great Powers on the Continent, and that the time which periodically arrives in our military affairs when “something must be done” had come. The something which is the result is, we hope, an earnest of a more liberal interpretation of the army's needs, and foreshadows the flight of that distrust of officers which was lately visible. At first sight it appears to be almost incredible that a system such as obtained could exist at the close of the Victorian era, except perhaps as some belated survival of one of the last century abuses, when political services were held to qualify men for almost any duties which involved the drawing of a handsome salary. If you are building battleships or cruisers, you place a man with experience of ships at the head of your dockyard. You trust the arrangement of law affairs to eminent judges and barristers, you leave theology to the clergy. In smaller matters you consult your tailor about trousers, and your saddler about harness. You do not order your guns from your greengrocer, or your cricket bats from your baker. And, following the analogy of civil life twenty years ago, men who had been educated in gunnery and metallurgy, and had spent a large portion of their lives not only in manufacturing but in practically testing guns and rifles, and had risen to distinction at the work, were those who were in charge of Government work—

shops where such articles were made. In certain quarters it was no doubt regarded as an unregenerate spirit of conservatism that our Admiralty still obstinately adhered to the old primitive policy, and sent admirals to look after dockyards with deliberate perversity. It is, we admit, perfectly true that under our former system things had not been all that might have been desired. The old Director of Artillery had more on his hands than any man, however capable, could adequately cope with, and there were well-founded and loud complaints that certain articles of armament, such as swords and bayonets, were not always of proper quality. It may be quoted as a set-off against this that similar complaints were heard in the Sudan last autumn, and that the boots which the new system gave to the British troops were about as bad as they could be. We have no desire, however, to play the part of advocate for the old system in its entirety. It failed, if it did fail, not because professional men presided over it, but because it was over-centralised and undermanned. As regards the actual products of Woolwich Arsenal there were never any complaints. The carriages and guns were well constructed, and were designed by officers who might themselves have to use them. Moreover, those who were responsible for the design were also responsible for the manufacture. To separate these two processes and place them in different hands is attended with no advantages, and is fraught by much misunderstanding and delay. Yet, by the system inaugurated by Mr. Stanhope, it was decreed that such should be the case; and that the designers and the managers—the men who did the actual work, and the men who were supposed to supervise it—should belong to opposite camps. That in our army and navy there are not men capable of managing as well as designing or manufacturing is a contention simply absurd. Where soldiers and sailors have been given opportunity, they have repeatedly shown themselves capable managers of affairs of the very highest intricacy and importance. Lord Kitchener has lately given substantial proofs of a business capacity not inferior to his purely military qualifications. Viscount Cromer's name is to-day a household word where questions of administration are concerned, and he received his education in the army, and for the first twenty years of his career was an officer of the Royal Artillery. The list of our greatest Indian administrators is thickly studded with soldiers' names. As regards the navy it is only necessary to point to the businesslike management of the Admiralty for examples. But to descend to the specific case we are discussing, we find that the services of soldiers and sailors in the management and science of ordnance construction command a very different value in the open market from what appears to be attached to them by the civilians who administer the army. The great private firms, it is presumed, know their business, and study their interests, and they all do their best to attract officers into their employment. The prosperity of the great Elswick company is due principally to the services of an ex-Artillery man, and their gun-constructing business is now largely superintended by those tempted to join from the same source. The same state of things is to be found in the other great armament and engineering firms. So that it comes to this, that the education and experience gained by officers of both services is now diverted out of the service altogether, in place of into the channels to gain access to which was formerly a clever man's ambition. In other words, men find it better worth their while to serve private masters than the Queen, and civilians are highly paid to do work badly for the army and navy, while the officers of the army and navy do the same work with success for civilian employers. Nor does the mischief end even when so extraordinary a situation is produced. The natural consequence of placing a civilian to superintend matters, the details of which are, at any rate at first, a puzzle to him, is that he fences himself round with a vast army of clerks, who check and counter-check, and call for returns, and in every conceivable way obstruct the smooth working of the vast machine. This army of clerks adds a considerable item of expense to the cost of production, but that is not the only evil. The real workers, the practical men (there are still a few, fortunately, left), see their efforts hampered and their

energies sapped in their struggles in the leading strings. The credit for their zeal and energy goes to others; even the inventions and improvements which their knowledge and ingenuity may have produced do not go to enhance their reputations; there is little scope for talent, small credit to be acquired. And when, after all the tension and heartburnings, the net result is pronounced by the public unsatisfactory, what wonder that the columns of our newspapers are filled with the criticisms and complaints of one authority after another? That even more might be said against the late state of things we are well aware. That those who criticised the financial working of our Ordnance factories were themselves responsible for expenditure was an almost grotesque incongruity. But Sir Bevan Edwards, General Russell, and the others who have taken up the question must have indeed written in vain, if such points have not been driven home, and we imagine we have said enough already to place matters sufficiently clearly before people of practical common-sense.

MODERN CÆSARISM.

OF the "unforeseen tendencies of democracy" is there any more remarkable than the discredit which is falling upon representative assemblies? In our own country judgment may, perhaps, be described as suspended; elsewhere the verdict is almost unanimously adverse. From Italy, from France, from Austria-Hungary, from Greece, from the United States, the same cry rises, with hardly a variation in the tone; and if we do not hear it also from Germany, that is probably because the representative element is there of comparatively slight importance. "Naturellement, c'est une canaille comme les autres," says the French peasant of his deputy; and it is with a sigh of relief that the American citizen hails the close of a session, and the departure of his all too costly legislators.

To those who are accustomed to identify parliamentary government with democracy, the breakdown of the one will seem to involve that of the other. But, in fact, the connexion of the two things is rather habitual than necessary. The representative assembly has been from the first an object of suspicion even among those who most warmly uphold the sovereignty of the people. Rousseau condemned it without reserve. "The English people," he says, "imagine that they are free; they are mistaken. They are free only during the few short hours of a general election. As soon as the election is over, they are the slaves of their representatives." The English people, it must be admitted, are still under the impression that they are free; and in other less happy countries the most bitter critics of the parliamentary system do not exactly complain that they are slaves; but they are learning to look with suspicion upon what Walt Whitman calls "the never-ending audacity of elected persons," and to mistrust the interpretation put upon the general will by their representatives. This, however, does not mean necessarily that they are ceasing to believe in democracy; which is simply government according to the will of the people, a representative assembly being but an accident in the matter.

Take, for instance, the case of Switzerland. The Swiss, as early as the thirties, began to discover the disadvantages of government by elected assemblies; and they hit upon the idea of organising in its place the direct rule of the people. By the device of the Referendum and the Initiative they are gradually devolving upon the electorate the functions originally reserved to the Assembly, with the result that, if ever the system were carried out to its logical end, every citizen would become his own legislator, subject, of course, to the veto of all the rest, while the Assembly would be converted into a mere committee to ascertain and record the popular vote. How far such an experiment might be profitably carried in a country like Switzerland, with its highly educated population, its comparatively simple social system, and its happy freedom from international complications, it would be rash for a foreigner to pretend to say. The results, up to the present, if they have been occasionally ridiculous—as when the people of Berne year after year vetoed the annual

budget—have at least not proved disastrous. Some even maintain that they have proved admirable; and it is possible that Switzerland, the classic home of direct democracy, may really succeed in reorganising that system under the more complex conditions of a modern federal State.

But Switzerland is Switzerland, an exceptional State and a small one. Few serious politicians would propose to apply the experiment of government directly by the people to Italy, or France, or the Federal Government of the United States. That the members of the legislative assemblies are too many and ill instructed is, in fact, the chief head of charge against them; but it is one that can hardly apply less to the mass of the people. If, then, parliamentary government is discredited, if government by the people at large is impracticable, in what direction are we to look for a third course? A suggestion which it may be worth while to consider comes to us from France. Frenchmen who despair of the republic turn, not to the mass, but to a man; or rather to a man as interpreter of the mass. This is their inveterate habit. They are haunted, as we say, by the legend of Napoleon. But the legend of Napoleon is also that of Cæsar; it is the Latin idea of representation of the people by a single man of genius. Cæsarism is by no means the same thing as despotism; the despotism, or the absence of control, is rather its unfortunate accident, the shadow that dogs its steps through history. Essentially, Cæsarism is representation, representation of the mass by a man. But if that be so, was there ever, since Cæsar himself, a true Cæsar? Certainly the latest embodiment of the idea was tragic enough. The story of the Third Napoleon is an evil augury for those who would have recourse to that desperate cure. For it was the Cæsarism idea by which the Third Napoleon was inspired. To regard him as a common cheat, a despot playing a popular part, is to misread the lesson of his career. In his own belief he was the soul of the people—if only he could have got himself incarnate! He could not; the body he should have informed he could only impel from without. His fate, and that of France under him, might disillusionise, one would think, those who cling to the idea for which he stood. But France, refusing to be disenchanted, still looks for him who should come. "She hears the gallop of the horse," as it has been said, "though she cannot tell who is the rider."

Curiously enough it is England, rather than France, that appears to be developing the conditions of a true Cæsarism. The problem is to find the man who shall be the people's representative, and yet shall be disabled from converting himself into their tyrant—in a word, to make Cæsar responsible. And it is not, perhaps, unduly hazardous to assert that the trend of events in this country seems to indicate how the problem might be solved. Government here has been becoming less and less parliamentary, and more and more autocratic every year. The Cabinet, still by a characteristically English paradox "unknown to the constitution," has been gradually drawing all power to itself. It not only governs, it legislates, subject only to the check that it must continue to command the confidence of the country. And when, as is often the case, the Cabinet is dominated by a single personality, then for the time being we have—what but a kind of Cæsarism? Such conditions, it may be said, are transitory perhaps; but they are the kind of conditions that are apt to continue and develop into a system. We have only to suppose that it becomes habitual with the people to vote not for a policy, but for a man; that it becomes as much a point of honour for the majority in Parliament to support their chief as it is for Presidential electors to vote for their party candidate; and we shall have, by a change of political manners rather than of political machinery, what would be in effect a new form of government, that of a dictator responsible to the people. Such is Cæsarism as it might be developed in England; but it would be a Cæsarism radically different from any that has been known in France, unless it were the ascendancy of Thiers after 1870. In France there is always the probability, one might almost say the certainty, that the "saviour of society" will no sooner arise than he will convert himself into a despot. He is sure to be a soldier, with the army

at his back; and, by the machinery of a centralised administration, he will effectually control all elections. His plébiscites, if he has recourse to them, will be as illusory as those of the Second Empire; and his affected reliance on the people will be but a mask for his reliance on the sword. But here things are different. The army has not hitherto been a factor in politics; there is not a swarm of officials ready, by threats or bribes, to influence votes in every constituency in the kingdom. The English constitution does provide the machinery for a popular dictatorship, but it provides also the means of control.

SHIRE HORSES.

TWENTY-ONE years, though almost an eternity on the everchanging Turf, is by no means a long period in which to bring about what virtually amounts to a radical change in the Shire horse, an animal as useful as he is massive. The term of a majority has seen a vast amount of money, enterprise, and, perhaps, better than all, of system thrown into horse-breeding. The twentieth London show of Shire horses has made clear to those whose memories can carry them back over two decades how great are the strides made in the production of the old English carthorse. That which is everybody's business is proverbially neglected, and in the main this was the case with horse-breeding until there arose in the land those specialist societies which have taken under their fostering care the different breeds of horses, heavy and light. Twenty-one years ago—that is to say, in 1878—the Shire Horse Society was incorporated with the avowed object of improving and promoting the breeding of the old English heavy horse, said by Sir Walter Gilbey to have been identical with the great horses on which armour-clad knights erstwhile rode to battle. When the Society first addressed itself to the performance of its self-imposed task it found the Shire horse in a very mixed state. It had been crossed and recrossed until very many specimens were no better than mongrels, and it was abundantly clear that not a little uphill work was in store for the newly incorporated body, which was happily formed of practical men. Equally fortunate, too, was it that several breeders were in advance of their time. They, like their fathers and grandfathers before them, had inherited prized strains, and, with rare forethought and judgment, had declined to run away after strange blood; and these men were simply invaluable to the Society on its formation. They were in a position to present to the inquirer the proper type of Shire horse, while their documentary evidence in the shape of cards and privately kept pedigrees saved the Society much work and most likely many years of labour. Not the least satisfactory part of the new departure was that the few conscientious breeders soon reaped something of the reward which was due to their prudence and care. Their strains became at once valuable, and any stock they had to dispose of realised what were then considered remunerative prices, and they, to all intents and purposes, formed the foundation stock of the Shire horses, as we have seen them during the week. Classes vary in excellence from year to year; but the show has been quite a success, and the Shire Horse Society has every justification for regarding with comfortable satisfaction the result of its labours; for not only were the entries very numerous, but the horses were in themselves good, and this improvement in the breed is due to the Society's efforts during the past twenty years.

The Shire horse naturally commends itself to the breeding agriculturist, whereas the pleasure horse can be bred with any chance of success by a comparatively few only. Farmers as a rule—there are, of course, exceptions—are better judges of a cart-horse than of a hunter or carriage-horse; the breeder of the former more often, as a consequence, breeds from better parents than do many of those who hope to produce light horses fitted for hunting or harness work, while the breeder of the Shire-bred is not called upon to encounter so many risks as he who confines his attention to light horses. Nature has happily endowed the cart horse with a somewhat phlegmatic temperament, and

even in the young stock we seldom find that exuberance of spirits which seeks an outlet in headlong gallops and a superfluity of kicking which bring so many embryo hunters to grief. Nor, again, is the education of the Shire horse a matter of difficulty. The carter makes quite an efficient breaker; the horse is put to work on the land, and, if he has any claim to make and shape, he can generally be sold at a decent profit either to some one who wants a horse for draught purposes, or to one of the great carrying firms, while he is earning his keep pending his being turned into money; so that the Shire-bred is essentially, and from all points of view, a farmer's horse. It may not, perhaps, be going beyond the limits of truth to venture the opinion that the rearing of heavy horses pays the breeder better than any other department of farming; but it, of course, requires system and skill, for going to work in a haphazard kind of way will no more produce a good cart-horse than it will a race-horse or hunter. The bulk of the breeding is in the hands of wealthy enthusiasts who do not depend upon the success of their hobby, yet this extremely fortunate circumstance—fortunate for the farmer and small breeder—does not find favour in some quarters, it being alleged that the farmer is injured by the quasi-competition of those who own the bulk of the horses exhibited at Islington during the week. The contention is that, whenever a good animal is put up for sale, the farmer is outbidden by the rich man, and so has no means of strengthening his hand at public sales. Those, however, who argue in this fashion would appear to overlook the by no means unimportant fact that, if a farmer can breed a really good animal, the eagerness of the rich to possess it leads to the seller receiving much more than he would do had he to depend upon the price the smaller breeders might be able and willing to pay, while it must not be overlooked that the number of valuable studs in England send out annually much good stock which finds its way into the farmer's possession, while the services of the best of sires are within his reach.

Though judgment can effect much, luck must ever play a prominent part in the breeding and selecting of live stock of every kind. The winning two-year-old stallion on Tuesday, Knottingley Regent, though bred by Mr. Henry Stuart, was exhibited by Mr. William Jackson, who is quite a beginner with Shire horses, and a very recently elected member of the Society. Then, again, Mr. Whitehurst, a tenant farmer, had the good luck to bring into prominence the famous Markeaton Royal Harold, and when Mr. Whitehurst's sale took place a few weeks ago, forty-three of his horses realised £3,990, giving an average of nearly £93 each. True, this is not the highest, or nearly the highest, average reached within a comparatively short time. The Buscot Park Stud, members of which have accounted for plenty of prize-money, averaged a few shillings over £200; the Barrow Stud over £175 each; Sir Walter Gilbey's just over £150, and Mr. Parnell's rather more than £136, while the extraordinary prices realised last year at Sandringham are not likely soon to be beaten. Figures such as these speak for themselves, and, with the exception of a breeding stud of thoroughbreds, such figures would seldom or never be reached by any other class of horse; while if any additional proof of the extreme popularity of the Shire-bred were wanted, it is forthcoming by the number of people who stood for hours round the ring on the judging days of the recent show, and watched with intelligent interest the making of the awards. For some reason or other the gelding classes are not nearly so well filled as might be expected. It may be that this is a good sign, indicating briskness of trade, through the best of them having been disposed of for use in the streets, and leaving a small stock only for show purposes. We hope that it is so, and that the sparsely filled classes do not suggest an indifference on the part of breeders to a remunerative market. The most unsatisfactory trait in connexion with the massive Shire horse is the all-important matter of soundness. In this respect something remains to be desired, though at the same time it is not surprising that the stamping out of hereditary unsoundness should be a matter of difficulty. The enormous frame of the Shire horse—he weighs about a ton—of necessity im-

poses a great strain on the feet and legs, and as the bone of the heavy horse is not of the close texture found in the blood horse, and to a greater extent still in the Arab, it is but in the natural order of things that unsoundness of limb, side bones being rather common, should manifest itself. Possibly a very generous diet, which is always enjoyed by show and stud horses, may have something to do with it; but at the shows the strictest veterinary examination is made of the candidate sent out by the judges, and there is no doubt that little by little a better standard of soundness has been attained.

PROPOSALS FOR THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE HOME ARMY.

II.

THE troops required for the First Army Corps are already located in the close vicinity of London, and Aldershot suggests itself as headquarters, the G.O.C. there being the Corps Commander. There are now at Aldershot thirteen battalions of infantry, divided into three unequal brigades; a fourteenth is at Woking. Of these three are in the permanent barracks or present 3rd brigade, the 4th battalion of which is now at Woking; and five close by in the 1st or South Camp brigade. By giving one of the 1st brigade battalions to the permanent barracks brigade, and by making Woking the station for the corps battalion, there would be in South Aldershot two complete brigades of four battalions each. In the North Camp there are at present five battalions, and by adding three, barracks for which would have to be built, there would be two more brigades or another division in North Aldershot. The three major-generals now commanding brigades might be reduced to two, each commanding a division in the North and South Camps respectively. The brigade command might be held by colonels. Of the three horse and six field batteries, the former could furnish the brigade division of horse artillery (two batteries) for the 1st corps, the 3rd battery being assigned to the cavalry brigade; and the latter could furnish a brigade division (three batteries) to each of the Aldershot divisions. But more field batteries would be required for the corps troops. These might come from Woolwich, which could be incorporated into the 1st corps by being merged into the London, or 3rd divisional district. For the 3rd division, composed of either Guards or line, there are in London two battalions at Wellington and two at Chelsea barracks, which would complete the 5th brigade; the 6th being drawn from Woolwich, Windsor, the Tower, and St. John's Wood, the barracks there being altered and enlarged if necessary for infantry. Brigadiers are ready to hand in the three Guards' colonels, two of whom might be so utilised, while the third could act as a second in command to the divisional general, discharging, in the latter's absence, the important duties of commanding the London district. The brigade division would be at Woolwich. The cavalry regiment furnishing the three divisional squadrons would be at Aldershot, and extra to the cavalry brigade. The R.E. and the A.S.C. would also be at that station, and the corps cavalry regiment at Hounslow. The regimental districts would be Hounslow, and a combination of the Guildford and Kingston depôts; the militia of which, together with the four battalions in London and the Maidstone and Canterbury militia brigade of the Second Army Corps, might be brigaded in turn as extra to the army corps establishments.

The Second Army Corps would have its headquarters at Portsmouth, and its divisions round Dover, Salisbury, and Devonport. Kent alone, with the exception of the present Woolwich district, would comprise the Dover, or 4th divisional command, and in it the Chatham district would be merged, the R.E. and the Thames and Medway defences being still under the commandant of the School of Military Engineering. The combination of these two districts would be an economy in the matter of staff officers, and should not, as in the parallel case of the London and Woolwich districts,

interfere with efficiency. The 7th brigade would have its brigadier and two battalions at Chatham, with one at Gravesend, the 4th being a marine battalion at Chatham; for, though it is usually said that the latter force should not be included in any army scheme, it is possible that one marine battalion would in any case remain in this country, and an important reason for including one is that to do so would tend to keep the marine infantry in touch with the line. The 8th brigade would have its headquarters and a battalion at Shorncliffe, and two at Dover, the provisional battalion being removed to Pembroke or Ireland. The brigade division and the divisional squadron would be at Shorncliffe, and there would be only one regimental district, composed of the combined Maidstone and Canterbury depôts. The 5th division would have its headquarters at Salisbury, where we understand that barracks are to be built to accommodate an infantry brigade; the other brigade having three battalions at Portsmouth and one at Parkhurst. The brigade division would be at Brighton and Chichester, and the divisional squadron at Shorncliffe. The regimental districts would be two, Sussex and Hampshire, and Wiltshire and Berkshire. The 6th division would have its headquarters at Devonport, the 11th brigade having two battalions there, one at Plymouth, and one at Portland, Dorsetshire being included in this district. The 12th brigade would be composed of militia under the commanding officer of the combined depôts of either Gloucester and Somerset (four battalions); Devon, Cornwall, Dorset and Cardiff (four battalions); Brecon and Wrexham (four battalions); or Shropshire and Worcestershire (four battalions). The brigade division would have two batteries at Exeter and one at Bristol, and the divisional squadron would be at Shorncliffe. There is no regular battalion available for corps infantry, so a militia battalion would have to be employed for the purpose, which could conveniently be drawn in rotation from either Chichester, Winchester, Reading, or Devizes, which have each only single battalions, none of which have been brigaded. The corps cavalry regiment would be at Canterbury, and the brigade division of R.H.A. and the Army Service Corps attached to the First Army Corps at Woolwich, there being no barracks available for them in the Second Corps district. The corps field artillery would have one brigade division at Hilsea, and another between Christchurch, Trowbridge, and Dorchester. The Engineers would be at Chatham.

In the Third Army Corps it is proposed to reduce Scotland to a major-general's command, and to locate a lieutenant general in a more central neighbourhood to command the whole corps, say at York, or if his presence should be desired nearer London, at Colchester. In any case the 7th division would have its headquarters at Colchester; two battalions there, one at Ipswich (where there would be no artillery), and one at Warley, completing the 13th brigade. The 14th brigade would be militia under the colonel of one of the combined depôts of Lincoln and Derby (four battalions); Norfolk and Leicester (four battalions, including the Huntingdon Rifle Militia); Suffolk and Essex (four battalions); or Bedford and Northampton (four battalions). The brigade division would have two batteries at Colchester and one at Weedon, and the divisional squadron would be at Leeds. It would perhaps have been better, in order to keep the artillery nearer their headquarters, to have made Weedon, instead of Ipswich, the extra infantry station; but the former is more suited to be the home of a mounted than a dismounted corps. The 8th division would have its headquarters at Chester; the 15th brigade being widely scattered between York, Sheffield, Lichfield, and Preston, with headquarters at the former; and the 16th being militia drawn from the combined depôts of either Warwick and Oxford (four battalions), Chester and Warrington (five battalions), Ashton and Bury (four battalions), Lichfield (four battalions), Lancaster and Preston (four battalions), York and Richmond (four battalions), or Halifax, Pontefract and Beverley (four battalions). The brigade division would have its three batteries at Birmingham, Coventry, and Seaforth, and the divisional squadron would be at Leeds. The 9th divisional district would be the Scottish, including Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland and Westmor-

land; the 17th brigade having two battalions at Edinburgh, where there would be no cavalry, one at Glasgow and one at Fort George; the 18th brigade being militia drawn from one of the combined depôts of Ayr, Stirling and Glencorse (four battalions); Hamilton and Berwick (five battalions); Aberdeen, Inverness, Perth and Fort George (four battalions); or Newcastle and Carlisle (five battalions). The brigade division would be at Newcastle, and the divisional squadron at Leeds. The corps battalion would have to be militia, taken from one of the combined depôts which have five battalions—namely, Newcastle and Carlisle, Hamilton and Berwick, or Chester and Warrington. This, unfortunately, completes the troops available for the Third Army Corps, for it is at present deficient of corps artillery, Engineers, and Army Service Corps. Attached to the Army Corps, however, would be a cavalry brigade, with its regiments at Colchester, Norwich and York, and its R.H.A. battery at Weedon.

The above distribution of troops is not ideally perfect, but the scheme aims merely at making the best use of available accommodation, and increasing military expenditure as little as possible. Its advantages are that it would organise the home army into regular corps, divisions, and brigades; that it would strike a heavy blow at the system of centralisation; that it would solve the problem of assimilating the line and the militia, and that, except as regards building barracks for seven infantry battalions and one cavalry regiment, which would probably have to be done in any case, it would not entail very much additional expenditure.

PINEROBERTSONIANA.

"*DEBEMUS in præcipuo ac perpetuo honore majores nostros habere, sed nequaquam,*" cried Cicero, in one of those bursts of common-sense which he kept usually for Atticus' private ear, "*in eam insaniam venerationis incidere ut putemus aptum nobis quidquid illi, pro suo tempore, approbaverint.*" As Cicero to the mob, so spake I to Mr. Hare when, ignoring the lapse of a generation, he revived "School" with every appurtenance of a modern play. I devoted two or three of these columns to showing him that Robertson's plays were, *as plays*, dead as door-nails, but might, properly produced, stimulate the archaeologist and touch the sentimentalist to the quick. I promised him a great success if he would produce one of Robertson's plays with the accessories of its period. Well! various eyebrows were raised, snorts emitted, heads tossed. Mr. Clement Scott beat his breast and declared that the fashion in men's costume had not changed since '68. Had he backed his words by donning the clothes he had worn in that year and in them walking up Piccadilly, and had his progress been marked by no unusual incident, his case would have been more convincing. But—so far as I know—he did not embark on this adventure. Nor did the public seem unable to exist without seeing "School" in modern costume. Mr. Hare, very wisely, decided to produce "Ours" with archaeological effects. I hear that the booking is excellent. Thus my advice has been taken, my prophecy fulfilled. I am much gratified by the success of the production.

As a play, "Ours" is dead. Triviality and unrealness are, I know, a great feature in most modern plays, but such triviality and such unrealness as were quite good enough for the 'sixties will not pass muster now. When we reflect that Robertson's comedies were the best in his day, and when we compare them with (say) "Lord and Lady Algy," we see at once that we have made *some* progress after all. We see that if Robertson had been born thirty years later he would have been a better playwright than he was, and we shudder to think what Mr. Carton would have been if he had belonged to the 'sixties. Such a farrago of silliness as the last (the Crimean) act of "Ours" would not be tolerated in any modern play; nor would any modern dramatist dare to play Robertson's childish tricks in technique. Even the worst modern plays are better—inasmuch as they are nearer to life—than Robertson's. As a dramatic presentment of life, "Ours" is no good at all. But, though it tells a fatuous story and shows us

no really human beings, it reflects, as every play does, the surface-manners of its period. In Mr. Hare's production of "School," the trouble was that mimes in modern dress had to behave as people who belonged to a bygone age. This incongruity annoyed the audience, and it paralysed the mimes. In "Ours," the congruity of costume with behaviour delights the audience, and it gives the mimes a chance of acting. Mr. Kerr made the greatest success. Whiskered and in vast checks, he acted better than I had ever seen him act: for the first time he showed that he could impersonate. In its essence, the part of Hugh Chalcot is a "Fred Kerr part," certainly; but the lapse of thirty years makes many differences, and Mr. Kerr's quickness in putting himself back into the 'sixties was a proof that he could also, if he chose, play brilliantly in parts not prefixed with his own name. Mr. Hare was, as usual, cameoesque. Miss Coleman, like Mr. Hichens' dowager, was "very, very Crimean," and Miss Mabel Lewis fainted as only a Terry could. The one member of the cast who did not impress me was Mr. Frank Gillmore. He did not seem to atone in intelligence for what he has yet to acquire in technique. Also, he should not have worn a little naval beard in the Crimea—the "Crimean beard" was not at all like that.

"Sweet Lavender," which Mr. Terry has just revived, is a kind of link between the comedies of the 'sixties and those of the late 'nineties. It is an essay in Robertsonism, with some, at least, of the modern improvements. In sentiment it is as saccharine, and in plot as silly, and in characterisation almost as unreal, as any play of the Master's, but the scenes are ordered far more naturally, and the coincidences far more dexterously explained, and there are no soliloquies to speak of. The Temple laundress and her daughter—oh daughter yet more lady-like than thy lady-like mother!—and the rich banker whose adopted son loves the laundress' daughter who turns out to be also his; the news of the rich banker's ruin coinciding with his recognition of the laundress; the cooking, the sweeping, the dusting, the washing-up, the clearing away; the rich banker's sister who is changed suddenly from vixenishness to sweet benevolence by the loss of her fortune; and the reclamation of the dipsomaniacal barrister, and the large legacy bequeathed to him, and his noble use of it—all these things are true-blue Robertsonian, of course. But Mr. Pinero has manipulated them much more adroitly than Robertson could have manipulated them—so adroitly, indeed, that they are almost convincing, even now. "Sweet Lavender" is still a very pretty entertainment, and it will be still prettier ten years hence, when (as I hope) it will be revived with appropriate costumes. Humour is ever Mr. Pinero's strongest point, and in none of his plays does it so gaily effervesce and overbubble as in "Sweet Lavender": one is either smiling or laughing so long as the curtain is up—sometimes *at* the play, but, on the whole, more often *with* it. As Dick Phenyl, the tipsy but sterling barrister, Mr. Edward Terry acts as well as ever. In the grotesque-pathetic style, which is the style needed for such a part, he is without any rival. And Miss Nina Boucicault plays the laundress' daughter very intelligently, and Miss Maude Millett plays the banker's niece very sensibly.

I did not see the prologue of "The Only Way" at the Lyceum. When I am forced to choose between coffee and a prologue, I take coffee. I do not blame myself. Whether one have dined ill or well, coffee is the inevitable colophon to one's meal; but who has ever seen a prologue that was not utterly superfluous to the play that followed it? Evidently, the prologue of "The Only Way" had not accomplished much, for the first two acts were little but a preparation for the last two. Ladies and gentlemen wandered about the stage, talking (in under-tones) about relationships and antecedent circumstances, slowly disposing of all those details which beset the conscientious dramatist who takes a well-known novel as his material. The effect was not inspiring, I confess. My spirits sank lower and lower. My attention wandered further and further. Sudden relief came, however, as the curtain rose on the third act. . . . The French Revolution in full swing,

a court-house crammed with red-capped men and unsexed women, all shrieking and murmuring and shaking their fists, and taking now one side, now another. The whole act was splendidly stage-managed and was, physically, most exciting. Then came the fourth act—a charming souvenir of that scene in the "Sign of the Cross" where we saw the early Christians awaiting their turns to be devoured by the lions. Here there were *pairs de France* instead of early Christians, the guillotine instead of lions, and a Parisian mob roaring greedily instead of a Roman one. Otherwise, there was no difference, and the appeal to the emotions was, in either case, identical. Thus "The Only Way" was saved. If its first two acts could be ruthlessly revised by Mr. Wilson Barrett, it might run for ever. As it is, it will probably run as long as Mr. Martin Harvey's season. Mr. Martin Harvey himself gave an extremely interesting performance. A more violent and ebullient method than his would have suited the part better, but he achieved much through sheer sense of the picturesque. A sense of the picturesque is very rare among actors, and without it no actor can achieve a great position. So much the better for Mr. Harvey's prospects.

I had feared that Mr. George Moore and "The Heather Field" would paralyse "literary drama" for the present. But I have just received a little book which assures me that my fear was unfounded. "Excursions in Comedy," by Mr. William Toynbee (Glaisher), are plays which have real literary charm and value. In "A Prank of Cupid" and "Monsieur Methuselah" Mr. Toynbee gives us the manners of the last century with a delicate fidelity that must be the outcome of great love. In all his dialogue there is wit, and a peculiar formal grace, very rare in playwrights. "I like fastidious people," says one of his characters; "there are too few of them nowadays." Certainly, Mr. Toynbee is among the survivors, and I am grateful for these filagreees of his. MAX.

MR. ARMSTRONG'S "GAINSBOROUGH."

"Gainsborough and his place in English Art." By Walter Armstrong. With sixty-two photogravures and ten lithographic facsimiles in colour. London: William Heinemann. 1898.

IN a too belated notice of this splendid volume I shall not repeat at length the praises it has won on all hands for its plates, paper, printing and get-up. Photogravure, perhaps, gives too dark and smoky a look to Gainsborough's glancing paint; but a plate like "The Morning Walk" brings us wonderfully near to a picture which Mr. Armstrong, with pardonable enthusiasm, calls the masterpiece of the eighteenth century. The drawings, too, are very interesting in themselves, and well rendered by Mr. Griggs. After a course of "art-books" printed, for the sake of half-tone blocks, on abominable shiny paper, it is a physical pleasure to read these pages.

Justice has no doubt also been done to the vigour and eloquence of Mr. Armstrong's text. He has not been able to add appreciably to the familiar and scanty materials for the life of Gainsborough, but he brings to his annotation of the matter of Thicknesse, Fulcher, &c., shrewdness of interpretation and a minute knowledge of the history of painting. We have to thank him, moreover, for a catalogue raisonné of paintings and drawings. But the feature of the book on which I shall take leave at this date to dwell is somewhat loosely attached to its subject—Gainsborough. With scanty material to work upon and some chapters to fill, Mr. Armstrong has indulged himself in divagations about the "subject" and "object," the theory of art, impressionism, and other philosophical matters. I share his weakness for such speculations, and cannot but be roused by the jaunty air of finality with which he disposes of all our hoary difficulties. He buzzes over the treacherous ground with the importance of a fly who has discovered how to sip the sweet glue on the flypaper without getting its feet stuck. The bodies of critics past and gone, and agitated frames with just a feeble kick left in one leg,

lie thickly trapped in the fallacious stuff, and he lectures them as they lie.

I should like, of course, to convince him at length that, for all his jauntiness, he has really left all his own legs sticking, and has not one to stand upon; but, not to weary the patience of my readers, I will only point to a few tale-telling fragments.

In his opening chapter Mr. Armstrong flings down the gauntlet with a theory of art. It is a little difficult to know where to begin, and I am far from denying that many things in the chapter are true and felicitously expressed; but just as often Mr. Armstrong seems to me to tumble with enthusiasm into the oldest, most familiar, pits of fallacy. For example, the fallacy of "correct drawing."

"The original, essential, non-conventional factors in a picture are design, colour, chiaroscuro, and handling. By design, I do not mean correctness or even objective significance of draughtsmanship, but the organisation into unity of the linear elements in the conception. Correct drawing, even when objectively significant, is not art, but science. The human figure may be rendered in line with the most scrupulous veracity, and yet leave our æsthetic emotions entirely untouched. Art only comes in when the figure, sufficiently drawn, is induced by its movement, lighting, colour, and manipulation, to contribute to the force and coherence with which the artist expresses his own emotions. Colour, chiaroscuro, and handling are freer dialects than design; their grammar is less rigid, the demand for illusion not so liable to be tyrannically used or erected into a test. The objects which a painter elects to represent are only vehicles for his æsthetic appeal. Having chosen them, he is obliged to control his rendering with a certain regard for fact, otherwise he would so distrust the spectator that the condition of mind required for æsthetic enjoyment would never be reached. But mere correctness of imitation holds no higher place in a picture than grammar does in a poem. It is an antecedent condition to complete enjoyment on the part of audience or spectator, but no amount of it will constitute art. . . ."

Now here we have a belief that there is something we can call "correct drawing" or "correct grammar." This "correct" or "sufficient" drawing once secured, art may begin. Art has nothing to do with the drawing or the grammar up to this "correct" point, and after this point apparently the beauty of painting or verse consists in something incorrect—a freer dialect, a want of rigidity. Now, I venture to assert that there is no such thing as "correct drawing" or "correct grammar." The expression is vulgarly used to describe drawing or writing that avoids the most glaring blunders in expression, but if we take the expression of a fact in words up from its most awkward statement, which is called "correct" because it avoids false concords, &c., through degrees of more telling order, juster choice of words and cadence, up to its most magical, poetical expression, every change, every improvement in that statement is a change, an improvement in its grammar. What, then, was supposed to be "correct" is corrected and corrected and corrected till it reaches the climax of expressiveness, and all the time the grammar becomes better and better. "No amount of grammar," says Mr. Armstrong, "will constitute art." I am not going to fall into his mistake and say that grammar only will, but I do say that every advance in the artistic expression of emotion is describable as a development of grammar or drawing, as the case may be. Take one of the elements that Mr. Armstrong opposes to correct drawing, viz. handling. If handling is only a pleasant knocking about of the paint to show the physical qualities of the paint or the muscular vigour of the painter, we have handling on its very lowest terms. Really fine handling, that of Rembrandt supremely, means the use of these qualities as expressive tools, means, therefore, not less, but more and better drawing, drawing in excelsis. The opposition in this paragraph ought to have been, not between correct and artistic drawing, but between artistic drawing, drawing that expresses the matter in hand, and explanatory drawing, drawing which explains what does not at the moment call for explanation.

But Mr. Armstrong is driving at another fallacy in this and preceding paragraphs. In trying to get at the "essentially" artistic element in art, he begins by threatening a clean sweep of all the significant side, and wishes us to find it in the arrangement of lines, colours, and so forth, according to their inherent beauty. In this he reverses the procedure of Tolstoi, who thinks to simplify matters by hacking off all this side of beauty, and making art consist purely in the conveyance of an idea. For the life of me I cannot see the advantage of explaining a thing as essentially consisting in half of itself. I can imagine an art which plays only with lines and colours that have no meaning; but once an image is taken on board (and this is the art of painting), why minimise the consequences and pretend it was only taken on board as a steerage passenger who pays his way by taking a hand at the ropes? No; when the image comes on board he comes as the pilot, and all the beauties of material handling, &c., are thenceforth judged as they obey and further his orders. I am not certain, really, whether Mr. Armstrong occupies this fallacy in more than a fitting way. In the paragraph quoted we see him preparing for flight. "The objects which a painter elects to represent are only vehicles for his æsthetic appeal. Having chosen them," he is obliged to be polite to them, but, on the whole, they are rather in the way. It is sudden, but not surprising, a little way down the page to find, "Why is 'Othello' the æsthetic masterpiece of Shakespeare? Is it not simply because the resonance of its lines, the sequence, mass and colour of its scenes, the very pace at which the action moves, are as expressive of the dreadful passion of jealousy as the funeral march of Chopin is of the passion of regret?" Certainly; but we are a long way here from taking up objects as vehicles for colour, handling, and so forth. The colour, handling, and so forth are now seized on as vehicles for the subject, the passion of jealousy. They carry one another alternately, then, these elements; and, like partners in a see-saw, both are "essential."

But I must hasten on to tell of the most direful old pit into which Mr. Armstrong, with the air of a revealer, stumbles. He defines Beauty. Painters and writers on art, he says, have unfortunately seldom had the benefit of a philosophical training. To what end, I wonder, serves a philosophical training, if at the close of it a man is still found defining Beauty—trying, that is, to describe Beauty in terms of something that is not Beauty? Mr. Armstrong revives the old explanation of beauty by the idea of fitness as refurbished by evolution. Now I am quite ready to believe that anything we call beautiful may be proved to have arrived at its beauty by way of adaptations to environment; that a rose, for example, is a mass of tricks by which rose-life is preserved and enhanced, the colour itself being a decoy for insects, who are to help in its propagation. But this last argument brings round the circle. The insects do this because they admire the colour, and as for the rest of the tricks, we knew nothing of them when we began to admire, and we admire no more for the knowledge.

In picking out these points I cannot but do injustice to brilliant passages in Mr. Armstrong's introduction. Nothing, however, seems to me really to depend on his main thesis or theses. All that is relevant to Gainsborough is gathered up in what he says afterwards of Gainsborough as an "Impressionist." "Gainsborough," he says, "was the first and greatest of the impressionists." I suppose it was tempting to use this word, and from what follows we see what Mr. Armstrong means it to convey. He means that Gainsborough was an unusually impromptu painter, who worked at a heat, following the first impression of the eye, and not revising that impression from second thoughts or the science of a calmer moment. And he finds in the absolute keeping and coherence of Gainsborough's work, done in this fashion, art unalloyed to a rare extent. With such "impressionism" he contrasts that of a draughtsman like Degas, who "underpins" with scientific truth. The word "impressionism" can of course be used in different senses. I have been accustomed to apply it to the logic of concentration and broadened effect in painting, to the effects which group about the conception of focus, and depend

in practice on the use of Reynolds' "dilated eye." French usage points to an art the very opposite of Gainsborough's, whose landscape is, as far as illumination goes, a studio curtain behind his figures. But Mr. Armstrong's use of the word is perhaps the most popular, and, once we understand his use of it, no harm is done by its employment. But he will never persuade us that there is a difference in kind between art like this and the more deeply revised, more thoroughly constructed art equally bent upon the secrets of expression. Gainsborough himself, to arrive at his simplicity of impression, must often have passed from the "innocent" look at the facts to the analytic; it is the procedure backwards and forwards of every artist. In the end a rapid unrevised survey contented him, because he was sure, with a minimum of construction, to catch so sure a charm and elegance that the defect might pass. We see him write in on a vaguely apprehended bag of a head the dominating expressive features, the eyes flattened away from the spring of the nose by the eager play of the brush that radiates out and peaks the eyebrows; then the nose written in, and the mouth, with tender excursions away into the unknown of the cheeks, and the whole rounded in by the hair and chin, when a limit must be reached. All this, and the extension of silk and feathers into sky and trees, let us praise at its inspired moments, but not make of it a battering ram for the ten times alembicated art of Leonardo and Rembrandt. I am inclined to think a closer grappling with the actual form of Gainsborough and his *social subject*, as compared with those of Vandyck and Watteau, would be more profitable than the vague distinctions drawn by Mr. Armstrong. Many other points I have noted for discussion, but I have already outrun my space.

D. S. M.

THE DREARY CONCERT SEASON.

OWING as much as we do to Mr. Newman and Mr. Wood, one is bound to say the best thing possible of them in all circumstances; but I cannot resist the temptation to ask whether their programmes have not lacked interest just a trifle of late. At their last concert, for instance, we were given some of "L'Enfant Prodigue" music, Brahms' violin concerto in D, Mozart's early symphony in E flat, and a symphonic rhapsody by Karel Bendl. Miss Ellen Beach Yaw sang a scena from Thomas' "Hamlet" and an "air du Rossignol" by V. Massé. The entertainment was to have ended with the Procession of Gods into Valhalla from "The Rhinegold," but unluckily the band forgot this, and before we had recovered from the stupefaction caused by the Bendl piece they rose and went out, sweeping Mr. Wood helplessly before them, leaving the larger part of an expectant audience sitting in the hall. Being a hardened musical critic I perceived at once that my anticipations for the afternoon were blasted, and I also departed. Whether the audience sat on, hoping against hope, until Sunday afternoon, I cannot say. Mr. Newman should not trifle with his audience in this way. We have all heard enough Wagner on the concert platform, it is true; but the Procession music would have been as cool water in a fiery desert after the terribly tedious proceedings of the afternoon; and if Mr. Newman had resolved that we should not have it, at least the band might have struck up the first two bars of "God save the Queen." That atrociously English melody can be relied on to clear any hall much quicker than the police could do it. And I wish to ask Mr. Wood what he means by dragging me from my comfortable hearth on a dull, damp Saturday afternoon by announcing the Mozart symphony in E flat, and then playing, not *the* symphony in E flat, but a boyish one in that key. Of course the boyish one has a certain interest, but scarcely sufficient to drag even so ardent a Mozart lover as myself to Queen's Hall. And beyond it there was nothing in the programme to allure one. "L'Enfant Prodigue" music is pretty enough, and Mr. Wood played it prettily, which is all that could be done. Some parts of the Brahms concerto are fine, some dull; and the player, Miss Leonora Jackson, though a good violinist, is by no means a great one; so there was no special attraction there. Miss Ellen Beach Yaw, though

extremely popular, on account, I understand, of her exceptionally high notes, is not as yet an artist. The songs she chose were mere florid exercises, and exercises which would sound better played by a musical-box than on the human voice. While she sang, I slept; and while I slept, lo! I dreamed a dream. A friend seemed to lead me to a fine organ; when the organ was tried, no fine music could be played on it; but my friend said "That is true; but try the highest octave and tell me whether you ever heard tone so clear before." I had to admit I had not, and awoke through my efforts to convince him that it was not enough for an instrument to possess a marvellously shrill and clear upper octave. As I woke Miss Yaw was finishing her nightingale song. She needs to study the elements of recitative-singing at once; for though the melodies of the "Hamlet" scena might sound charming on a musical box, recitative, even in French, sounds absurd when it resembles recitative played by a musical box. Altogether the afternoon was saturated with a positively deadly dullness. It is of course very difficult to make up programmes containing enough of novelty and freshness to draw large audiences; and apart from this, it is of course right to enable English audiences to hear music that has not been played before. But the majority of London concert-goers have surely heard "L'Enfant Prodigue." The five-and-twenty minutes it occupied were therefore wasted, unless indeed Mr. Wood does not care what he plays so long as it ensures a big house. In that case why not give us selections from "The Belle of New York" at once, or engage Mr. Albert Chevalier to do a "turn" between a Beethoven symphony and a Brahms concerto? As a mere matter of fact, I know Mr. Wood does care what he plays, and has a wholesome contempt for the taste of the vulgar crowd. But I fancy it has not occurred to him that, if novelties we must have, the precious minutes of his afternoon concerts should be devoted mainly to things we have not heard before and are unlikely to hear elsewhere. The choice is not so limited as might be thought. One need not necessarily fall back on the achievements of Mr. Smith, or Dr. Brown, or Professor Hydyddledyddle, or even on the masterworks of Herr Zwxxkflgn, the distinguished Hungarian composer. There is plenty of old music in the world that is perfectly new. It was a very old continent that became New England. Some of the most beautiful things of Bach, Handel (for even Handel is amongst the great unknowns), Grétry, Rameau, and the old Italians, properly played—played, that is, as Mr. Wood is well able to play them, with delicacy and a keen feeling for their old-world idiom—these would come as revelations to the English public. My business is, I am aware, to criticise what is performed, and not to say what should be performed. But the critical worm turns at times. These suggestions are wrung from me by the recollection of "L'Enfant Prodigue" and the Bendl rhapsody.

"Tired of all these, for" some kind of change "I cry, As, to behold" the piano-athlete lording it and the genuine musician kicked ignominiously from our doors. The piano-athlete has had a long reign in London, and his reign is not by any means ended yet. Why? Because the complexity and ennui of modern life, its unreality and horror of simplicity and the naked truth, its wide outlook on the whole of human life (made possible by railway and telegraph), its good features as well as its bad features, have resulted not only, as Ruskin said, in our longing to be anywhere else than where we are and in any other time than our own time, but also in a crazy desire to make every machine or tool or instrument serve another purpose than the purpose for which it is fitted. No organist wants to play organ-music on the organ, and no audience wants to hear it: both player and audience want to hear the noises of the barnyard, of the woods in summer, of the thunder-storm, more or less successfully imitated. No clarinetist is content with the genuine characteristics of the clarinet: he wants the agility and the long upper range of the flute as well. The flautist for his part wants the richness and loudness of clarinet in his lower register. And the pianist wants to imitate the flute, the clarinet, the piano, the orchestra and every instrument in or not in the orchestra.

Besides that, he wants to do feats which should be the inalienable copyright of the gymnast and the conjurer; and the audience is with him in the belief that these are the things for which the piano was invented and for which piano-playing is taught. The piano was once an individual instrument, an instrument with a quite definite character of its own: now it is become a monstrous hybrid, a strange and horrible Circe with power to change musicians into curious animals, all their musicianship turned to an intense lust for an exaggerated technique. A few pianists, scattered here and there over the face of Europe, have resisted the enchantment to an extent, and combine with the lust for technique a love of music and beautiful tone and phrasing. But they are spoken of as pianists of inferior talent: their superiority is considered a mark of lower talent and is decidedly a drawback to their success. Schools of playing, in the old and only true sense, there are none. The difference between Mozart and Clementi was that Mozart took one essential feature of the piano and made the most of it, while Clementi made the most of another essential feature. The difference between our modern so-called schools is merely that one tries less than another to make the most of possibilities which are not essential features of the piano. So A comes and does wonderful tricks and holds his own in the public estimation until B does one trick more, and by making a new sensation eclipses A. Were A and B both artists, both might hold their own. But of artists there are few, and of instruments for them to play on there are fewer. There are passages in Beethoven which have not been heard by the modern ear, simply because the modern piano is not the piano they were written for, and on the piano they were written for they produce a totally different effect to the effect they produce on the modern piano. The best pianists either boldly play the loud passages of Beethoven and Mozart with about thirty times the intensity of tone the composers wrote for, or "fake" the instrument as an oboist does when his oboe gets quarter of a tone flat in the middle of a symphony. But, as I say, it is a waste of energy for any pianist to try to play in musicianly fashion; and most pianists seem to realise this, and never try. Ninety-nine out of every hundred piano recitals given in London are not only not worth attending, but are a positive offence to one's artistic conscience. I shirk them without shame, especially at such times as at present, when the athletes are not even first-rate athletes, but for the most part tenth-rate, weak-kneed, or rather weak-wristed, weak-fingered, weak-armed imitators of the first-rate men. Dohnányi is most musician-like of all to be heard just now. But Miss Eibenschütz is a refreshing change from the virtuosi. I should like to call her a great artist, but cannot; but she is at any rate a highly agreeable artist. She plays Beethoven rather callously, Brahms she makes agreeable, and in Schumann she is at her best. Her tone never becomes unpleasant; she is always intelligent and always keeps a clear head, with the result of always playing clearly; she abuses neither of the pedals; and when she is in sympathy with the music she succeeds in delighting everyone.

J. F. R.

FINANCE.

ON the Friday of last week the Stock Exchange had a bad attack of nerves. The news of the sudden death of President Faure, succeeding the difficulties of the carry-over in the mining section at the previous settlement, caused a decided scare, and on Friday morning there was a rush of speculators for the rise to close their commitments, the downward movement being still further accentuated by the action of a number of somewhat rash professional "bears." The Mining Market suffered most, owing to its particularly nervous condition, but Foreign Stocks and Home Railways were also depressed, for what reason, except from a desire to put on mourning for the dead President, it is a little difficult to discover. Very much to the surprise of London, however, when the Paris Bourse opened it was found that French operators were very differently affected by the sad news, and,

instead of being sellers, they came over buyers at the lower prices which had been established in London. Consequently there was an immediate recovery, and on Saturday prices were pretty generally restored to almost their previous level. The election of President Loubet by a very large majority at the first ballot, his reception and his Message, giving some indications that he is a stronger man than was at first generally believed, and that at any rate he is a staunch Republican not disposed to tolerate any nonsense from Pretenders or from the Rocheforts and Déroutés, imparted further confidence to the markets. The rapidity with which the crisis was safely passed over, though this was no doubt due in great part to the suddenness with which it had arisen, has rehabilitated the French Republic in the eyes of the world, and contributed to a feeling of greater confidence in its stability. There were, however, some forebodings that the funeral of President Faure might still prove the occasion for serious disturbances in Paris, and this fear, combined with some uncertainty as to the position which would be disclosed by the Settlement, which began on Tuesday in the Mining and on Wednesday in the general markets, prevented the recovery from being considerable. On Thursday afternoon both these fears were dispelled. The funeral in Paris passed off practically without incident, and the stringent precautions taken by the police, as a result of the drastic order issued by the Prefect, added to the growing belief in the new President's firmness and in the probability of a better state of affairs in France under his régime. Further, the progress of the Settlement showed that the account has been brought into a much healthier condition, and that it is now of quite manageable dimensions. Consequently the markets closed buoyant on Thursday night, and the slight easing off in quotations yesterday, due to the reported death of the Ameer, is probably not of much importance.

Owing to the conditions to which we referred last week, the Money Market displays a perceptibly harder tendency, and the Settlement requirements have contributed to its firmness. The principal element which has hardened rates is, however, the inflow of taxes, the Bank return on Thursday showing the very large increase of £1,719,715 in the public deposits. This signifies the end of one of the factors which have recently contributed to the ease of the money market. Exceptionally heavy Government disbursements have kept the market plentifully supplied with cash, but from now onwards until the end of the quarter this superabundance of money will in all likelihood cease. Already it would seem that the market has been obliged to borrow a large amount from the Bank, Government and "other" securities being up £727,137. "Other" deposits have at the same time decreased £897,700, these two amounts together representing almost the whole of the increase in the public deposits. Although £182,000 has been withdrawn from the Bank for abroad on balance during the week, the reserve has increased £125,201, but the proportion of reserve to liabilities has fallen $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., to 45½ per cent. The position of the Bank is, however, more favourable than on the corresponding date last year, the ratio being 1¼ per cent. higher, although the total reserve is only about £30,000 higher. The unusual extent of the Government disbursements during the past half-year may be gathered from the fact that the public deposits are now more than £3,000,000 lower than on the corresponding date last year.

Whilst we do not anticipate any stringency of money in London for some time to come, for reasons already given, we also think it probable that for a while there will be a slightly firmer tendency in the Money Market. Not only are trade and industry active, and therefore drawing largely on available supplies, but precautions will have to be taken to prevent a large outflow of money from this country to France when the United States pays over the purchase-money for the Philippines to Spain from the balances still lying in London, in spite of the recent enormous export of American securities across the Atlantic. Recent events in France make it probable that conditions in Paris will soon materially improve, and arrangements for the

above purpose should be easily made. Further, the position in Berlin is materially better in every respect. There is, in fact, reason to believe that the causes of the recent monetary crisis there have been greatly misunderstood. Industrial activity in Germany is undoubtedly on the increase, and demands large supplies of capital; but the ease with which the Berlin Money Market has recovered after the great strain to which it was exposed in the later months of the past year shows that German resources are considerably larger than they were supposed to be. Moreover, it is becoming clear that the crisis was not due to any inherent weakness in Germany's credit resources, but to the extraordinary action of the *Crédit Lyonnais* in suddenly withdrawing the accommodation it had been giving to Berlin capitalists. Since the amount thus withdrawn represented a sum probably approaching 600,000,000 francs, the difficulty in which Berlin was suddenly placed can be understood, and whether the French bank acted from political or from financial motives, it is certain that its reputation has suffered severely in Germany on account of its unexplained refusal to continue the facilities it had previously given. It is at present in New York that danger for the future lies. There the speculative account open is still unparalleled in dimensions, and the enormous amount of securities sold by Europe to United States investors must either be taken up or carried with borrowed money. Moreover, the usual outflow of money from New York to the interior at this season is beginning, and New York will no longer be able to draw upon London on the same terms as in previous years. We doubt whether the present speculative position in New York can be maintained much longer under these conditions; and although the extraordinary activity of trade and the undoubted present prosperity of the inhabitants of the United States may tide safely over any monetary tightness, the few who still dabble in American securities on this side of the Atlantic should act with caution.

The Settlement in the Home Railway Market revealed few remarkable movements during the past account, though the majority of changes were in the downward direction. The most considerable rise was in Furness Railway stock, which moved 5 points up. Great Western new stock rose $\frac{3}{4}$, and the new developments of this line, combined with the continued increase in traffic receipts, indicating an early restoration of the dividend to its old level, make the old stock also worthy of attention at its present price. Last week the increase in the Great Western's receipts was £6,210, following an increase of £7,680 last year. All the Great Northern stocks moved up during the account, justifiably, as we have shown on several occasions, and on this line also there was a satisfactory increase in receipts of £4,020, following an increase last year. Midland Preferred and Deferred stocks, however, remain stagnant, the former moving up and the latter down $\frac{1}{4}$ on the account. In both these stocks we see room for a material improvement, for the Midland receipts continue to increase at a satisfactory rate, and the importance of the Great Central competition has been largely over-discounted. Districts, the one English railway stock which is likely to move actively in the near future, eased off slightly during the account to 39 $\frac{1}{2}$. There has since been a good deal of important buying of this stock, and yesterday the price rose over 41. We have reason to believe that this is due to a very important step forward in the negotiations which are proceeding for the acquisition of the control of the District Company by the Great Western and the South-Eastern conjointly, and it seems to us now highly probable that eventually the negotiations will end satisfactorily for District shareholders, certain difficulties which threatened the whole scheme having been removed. Should the scheme be carried, and should it, as is rumoured, amount to a guarantee of 2 per cent. on District stock, the price may easily reach 50, though, as we have already warned our readers, it is as well to remember that quite two years must elapse before the arrangement can obtain Parliamentary sanction and be carried into effect.

American Rails, with the exception of some irregularity on Tuesday, were a good market until yesterday, and making-up prices on Wednesday showed an almost

unbroken series of improvements in this department. Nevertheless, in the present state of the money market in New York and its prospects in the immediate future, we prefer to err on the side of caution. Prices are in this section, except in the case of certain stocks, at a precarious level, and any stringency of money in the United States will certainly bring them down. European investors and speculators who have sold out with handsome profits, and whose scrip is now in Wall Street, will do well to leave it there, and not to be tempted to take a hand in any further gamble until there has been a considerable reaction. The exceptions to which we have referred are, however, important. Making-up prices disclosed the significant fact that New York Centrals had risen 3, and Union Pacific Common and Preferred 4 and 3 respectively. On Thursday, New York Central closed a further $\frac{1}{2}$ point higher, and the rise in Union Pacific was well maintained. From this it would seem that the scheme to which we referred last week for amalgamating the New York Central and its dependent lines with the Union Pacific, under the Vanderbilt lead, is still in contemplation. The importance of such an amalgamation as this can scarcely be over-estimated. To work a through system from New York to the Pacific, as the scheme proposes to do, under one management, would mean an enormous economy in the expenses of administration; and since the plan would be carried out under the aegis of the New York Central—that is, of the Vanderbilts—it is certain that New York Centrals would benefit most by the arrangement. Whether the public would also benefit is by no means so clear as things go in the States. Here in England we are beginning to recognise that competition amongst railways often makes for bad service. The outcry that is being raised in some quarters against the working agreement between the Chatham and Dover and the South-Eastern is wide of the mark, if it means anything more than that proper Parliamentary safeguards shall be imposed for the protection of the public.

Messrs. Speyer Brothers now announce the full details of the plan for the reorganisation of the Central Pacific Railroad, which fully conforms to the general outline we were the first to announce a month ago. Briefly, the shareholders of the Central Pacific under the plan will receive four Southern Pacific shares and one Southern Pacific 4 per cent. gold bond for every four Central Pacific shares. This means that the Central Pacific is in effect sold outright to the Southern Pacific Company, and will form an integral part of its system; so that the state of affairs which enabled the Southern Pacific to starve the Central Pacific will be at an end, and each line will participate in the common prosperity. Moreover, the 25 per cent. of a Southern Pacific gold bond for each Central Pacific share is equivalent to 1 per cent. in perpetuity on Central Pacific stock. To provide for the execution of the plan the capital of the Southern Pacific is to be increased to about \$200,000,000, which will henceforward represent the capital of the combined companies; and since the net income of the two companies on the basis of the earnings of the year ending 30 June, 1898, after providing for the increased fixed charges of both systems, shows a surplus of 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ million dollars, it is clear that the Central Pacific shareholders have been fairly, and even generously, dealt with. A powerful syndicate has been formed and eagerly over-subscribed to provide \$70,000,000, the sum which is expected to be necessary to carry out the scheme successfully.

Moreover, Messrs. Speyer Brothers have successfully negotiated with the United States Government for the settlement of the claim it has upon the Central Pacific Railway Company, amounting to \$58,812,000, and the reorganisation scheme provides for the payment of this debt. In view of the improved prospects of all American railways and the fact that the earnings on which the calculations of the effects of the scheme are based were those of the year ending 30 June last, when the improvement had not had its full effect, we consider that the scheme is eminently satisfactory. It could not, indeed, have been made so favourable had it not been for the great improvement in trade and industry in the United States, and the corresponding improvement in the credit of the railways. As it is, the Banbury committee of London shareholders, representing a majority of the

outstanding stock, has agreed to the plan with alacrity. The shares it held have already been deposited with the re-adjustment managers, and Mr. Morshead, who has long been indefatigably, but somewhat erratically, crying in the wilderness, now finds his occupation gone. In April last Central Pacifics were quoted at 11. At the end of last year they had risen as high as 43. When we gave our readers early information of the favourable character of the reorganisation scheme and of the probable further rise in the value of the shares, they stood at 48. Now they have risen to 54½, and we expect that they will soon touch 60. Messrs. Speyer Brothers are to be congratulated on their success in doing for the Central Pacific what they did last year for the Baltimore and Ohio, the shares of which railroad, as a consequence of their reorganisation of its affairs, have risen from 13½ in July last to 74½ at the present time. If the present negotiations for the reorganisation of the Metropolitan District Company should fail, Messrs. Speyer Brothers might well be asked to devote a little of their attention to a railway on this side of the Atlantic.

The South African market appears to have wholly recovered its buoyancy after the very severe shake-out which followed upon the difficulties of the Mid-February Settlement and the further shake-out, almost as severe, which occurred on Friday morning last week in consequence of the fear of what might ensue upon President Faure's sudden death. The market is now undoubtedly in a far healthier condition than it was a fortnight ago, and ripe for a further upward movement. Then there was an enormously swollen but correspondingly weak bull account. Now the weak people have all been shaken or squeezed out, many of those who had bought quite beyond their means to take up having been compelled to sell through the impossibility of finding facilities for carrying over stock. There is, it is true, still a large account open for the rise, but it is in strong hands, and it is, moreover, very much smaller than before the shake-out; whilst the weak speculators must have been effectually frightened from coming in again to impart an element of weakness to the market. There is not much doubt that the larger operators and the big houses have set themselves deliberately to discountenance as much as possible all rash and uninformed speculation in this market. The lesson of the collapse after the boom of 1895, the effects of which were felt acutely until the end of 1897, has been well learnt, and it is seen that to be permanent the upward movement which has now well begun must be upon merits, and not on wild and indiscriminate buying of anything and everything. It is probably a mistake to attribute so much importance to Paris buying as is done on this side of the Channel. A more important factor at the present time is Berlin, where, in the steady, philosophic German way, considerable attention has for a year past been given to the Witwatersrand gold-mining industry, and the reasons for considering the established mines as permanent and steady investments, which we have often urged upon our readers, have been fully appreciated. Another new factor in the case is the Geneva Bourse, where of late considerable attention has been paid to Transvaal gold-mining undertakings, and shares in a number of important mines have been freely bought. There is at present a good deal of steady buying going on, and although Paris, after the quiet funeral it vouchsafed to President Faure, is again giving support, it is to good English and German buying that the strong tone is due.

Amongst the shares in outcrop mines of which a judicious purchase at the present time should lead to fair profits during the new account is the Angelo, the most promising of the East Rand properties. These shares, on a careful estimate based upon the past yield and the further developments now in progress, are worth from £10 to £11, and the market in them is very firm. The latest news from the Van Ryn is also encouraging. We drew attention to these shares when they stood at 1½. They are now 3½, but are likely to go still higher. Roodepoort Uniteds, which, after we had recommended them to the attention of our readers, rose from 4½ to 5½, are now stationary; but since we estimate that they are worth £7 on the basis of a

10 per cent. yield to the investor, after allowing for amortisation, we expect to see them shortly go still higher. The Glencairn, under its new control, should also go better, and the new George Goch, which has now started crushing its richer ore, will probably also improve. Amongst the deep levels Rose Deep, which is about to increase its stamping power still further in consequence of the greatly increased width of the reef in the lower levels, is still, in spite of its big rise in the value of the shares during the last year, a good purchase, and the New Steyn Estate, Jupiter, Nourse Deep, Rand Victoria, Robinson Deep, and Rand Mines, now quoted ex dividend of £1, have chances of considerable improvement, in spite of the high level of prices now reached. The Boksburg property, which has long been quiescent, was reintroduced to the market yesterday. It lies next to the ground of the Apex Company, and it is believed that the Apex reef will be traced on the property. The shares were dealt in at 1½.

The shareholders of the Violet Consolidated Company will be very foolish if they do not accept the excellent terms of reconstruction offered them by the General Mining and Finance Corporation. They are in every way more advantageous than the proposition put before them by Henderson's Transvaal Estates, and urged upon them at an extraordinary meeting last week by their chairman, Mr. J. C. A. Henderson, who happens to be also the chairman of the Transvaal Estates Company. The Consolidated Goldfields, which has also been mentioned in the matter, has nothing to do with and has no interest in the reconstruction scheme, but has only declared its willingness to undertake the management of the company in South Africa. The offer of the General Mining and Finance Corporation, as compared with the offer of Henderson's Transvaal Estate, will give to the shareholders one new share for every three old, instead of one for four, will guarantee £150,000 debentures bearing 5 per cent. interest instead of 6 per cent., and the period during which the debentures can be converted into shares will be two years instead of three, which will be greatly to the advantage of the company if its future is successful. Moreover, any shareholders who care to participate in the debenture guarantee on ground-floor terms will be allowed to do so. When it is remembered that it is the General Mining and Finance Corporation, directed by the brothers Albu, which has carried out the highly successful reorganisations of the Van Ryn, the Roodepoort United, and the George Goch, any hesitation the shareholders may have with regard to accepting the offer should vanish at once. At the meeting last week the shareholders were coerced into accepting provisionally the offer of the Henderson's Transvaal Estates, but at the confirmatory meeting on 3 March it is quite open to them to reject it, and to accept that of the General Mining and Finance Corporation. Since there is evidently something in the Violet property worth fighting for, it is clear that the shareholders should get the best terms they can.

A paragraph in one of the financial dailies made an extremely stupid statement on Thursday with regard to the Mozambique Company. The Compagnie Internationale Belge de Commerce et d'Industrie, it said, "will shortly bring on the market 60,000 Mozambique Shares, forming the remainder of the recent increase of capital, at the price of £2." What this statement means if it does not mean that the Compagnie Internationale is going to sell these 60,000 shares at £2 apiece, it is impossible to say. And such a meaning as this is preposterous. What the Compagnie Internationale has really done has been to take a very large interest in the Mozambique Company, and nothing is farther from its intentions than to put these shares on the market at the present time. Surely the writer of the paragraph did not imagine that such a stupid misstatement could serve as the pretext for a bear attack. We hear that another South African finance company, the New African, whose shares have recently had a big rise, and are likely to go higher, has been doing very well of late, and is not only carrying out important developments, but will also shortly declare a very big dividend, so big that we prefer not to name the figure. On the other side of the Continent another land company, the

South-West Africa Company, has been attracting a good deal of attention, and the shares have risen from 8s. or 9s. not very long ago to 27s. 6d. on a reported important find of copper in its territories. The buying has been of an important character, and since very big people are at the back of the company, there is probably more in it than is apparent to the outsider. We anticipate that these shares will shortly see a further important rise.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WEST AFRICAN ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

32 St. Mary Abbott's Terrace, Kensington, W.

MY DEAR SIR,—After your tolerant, kindly treatment of me in the article on "Civilisation and Morals" in your last issue, I feel that it is of the nature of ingratitude to say anything further to you on the subject of the administration of Western Africa. My excuse for troubling you further is the great importance of the subject, and my desire to see it considered by thinking men who, having no immediate personal interests in the affair, can think it out clearly and calmly. At present those who are dealing with the case are not in a position to see it whole and see it clear. One section of them are men to whom it is naturally displeasing to acknowledge anything is wrong at all; and who, therefore, cry Peace, Peace, when there is no Peace; or who, when things get beyond the possibility of this, cling to the skirts of Hope and soothe themselves with that blessed word Mesopotamia—civilisation I mean—and for the rest attribute failure to others—to the savagery of the native populations and the incompetence and ignorance of the British trader, spending time that might be better employed in offering to teach the trader how to do his business; time that is really wanted in the direction of seeing that he is allowed to do his business by foreign Powers under existing treaty rights; while, on the other hand, the other section interested in West Africa is too dead savage to consider the affairs of tropical Africa calmly. They can do it clearly enough, having had most of the nonsense knocked out of them by contact with facts. The whole mental atmosphere of England in Africa wants clearing—must be cleared if we are to avoid a crash there. We have seen what the policy we are at present following has resulted in in the French colonies, as a debt-making machine. We cannot by following that policy, "the day after the fair," achieve the magnificent territorial Empire France has gained in Africa, and our present African tropical empire cannot support, with its smaller area and its more unwholesome climate, an expensive policy so well as the French African Empire can. In addition, our tendency to interfere with the local populations in the direction of domestic control raises them up against us to a greater extent than the French method does.

The whole question that England has to ask herself in the matter of administering tropical Africa, I think, is just this. Is the Landes-Hoheit worth our having, either for moral or commercial reasons? I say, as far as I know, the Landes-Hoheit is not—but the Ober-Hoheit is. The contention against this view is that we must have the Landes-Hoheit, both for the purpose of civilising the natives and procuring the natural riches of the country. Against this contention, I say, if you take up the Landes-Hoheit you must be prepared to fight every African who has an ounce of grit in him from one side of the continent to the other, and smash him, and then you must revert to the old Slave-trade methods in order to make him work. When you have accomplished this, you can instruct him in your religion and your particular form of civilisation. In order to make this policy of Landes-Hoheit anything of a success, it must be absolutely thoroughly carried out; you must be prepared to spend an enormous treasure on the undertaking, and thousands of your most valuable sons' lives, and get no profit out of tropical Africa for, say, twenty years, and at the end find yourself master of a gang of slaves, and in possession of a country you cannot colonise. Is it worth it? Now the expansion and development of

the Ober-Hoheit is quite another affair; the development of administration along the lines of Ober-Hoheit gave you India, and in India has developed into a superb instrument for doing good; and what I maintain is that we should to-day found for Africa a similar system, suited to its environment, and therefore capable of healthy development, and it should be a more rapid development, for the African is more amenable to the influence of European ideas than the Asiatic.

I should like, in conclusion, to draw your attention to a valuable communication published in the "Board of Trade Journal" for this month, for it contains some valuable lessons regarding railways in Africa. Referring to the Royal Trans-African Railway in Angola, it says: "The railway is now open for traffic up to N'Dalla Tando (kilometre 321). The freight on a ton of 1,000 kilos of coffee or rubber for the whole distance is Rs33,700, which at the rate of 4,500 to the £ is equal to £7 9s. 9d., or at the present rate of exchange of 6.575 to the £, equal to £5 2s. At the present low price of coffee in the European market it is impossible for the planters to pay such a heavy freight, the result being that the coffee is mainly stored up-country, to the detriment of the planters, who have the greater part of their capital locked up in their plantations. The freight on coffee from Loanda to Liverpool is £2 per ton. With such a high tariff no inducement is held out to the planters to make use of the railway, most of whom have had to resort to the old system of native carriers to transport their goods and produce to and from Dondo, from whence it is shipped to Loanda by small steamers and sailing vessels via the Quanza River. This mode of transport means delay in the delivery of the cargoes, and is just as expensive as the railway, with the exception that the native carrier is paid in cloth, on which a profit is gained." Now, in Angola there is a region less unhealthy for white men than, say, Sierra Leone. The labour problem there is not so acute; coffee flourishes there luxuriantly, yet the trade cannot stand heavy imposts. A railway, just because it is a railway and is quicker as a means of transport, is of no avail if it is not cheaper than carriers. Therefore the greatest care should be taken not to hamper the resources of a West African colony with a railway constructed on such expensive lines that it must charge heavy freights, because the margin of profit on the West Coast trade is less than it was, while, unfortunately, the expenditure on the West African Government has increased, and the trade must pay the whole bill. This, unless enormous mineral wealth be discovered and made workable, in those regions cannot mean prosperity.

In conclusion, there is but one thing I would wish to say against your masterly statement on Government. You say the present "machinery will work." I say it cannot. It has done its best all the time. I am not one of those who say we want a better class of men out there as Government officials. We do not; the Government officials are, as a rule, quite good enough for the place, far too good for the system they work under. We have had and have some splendid men down there. No, sir, believe me, it is the system—the machinery; it is no use pouring a lot of valuable oil on that thing. It is not properly put together, though all the bits may be good enough in themselves.—Yours very truly,

MARY H. KINGSLEY.

POPULAR CHURCH HISTORY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

23 Old Bailey, E.C., 18 February, 1899.

SIR,—When the SATURDAY can afford to devote nearly three whole columns—a page and a half—for the purpose of criticising a sixpenny booklet of ninety-one small pages *nine years* (mark the time) after the first issue of the work, I think the only natural inference is that, after all, there must be something in it—in the book, I mean.

Where has the SATURDAY, like the "Contemporary," been all these nine long years? And why do both periodicals wake up suddenly like the Seven Sleepers of old, to discover and endeavour to crush out of existence a little unpretending work of ninety-one pages? I believe I could answer that question too if I cared so to do.

The writings of the SATURDAY and the "Contemporary" are so identical in parts that I am led to believe that the same pen is responsible for both. If so, I am the more amazed, as I have already replied to some of the inaccurate statements of an eminently one-sided, hostile critic in the "Contemporary" only a few weeks ago.

The SATURDAY begins by declaring that this Story "attempts to give a consecutive history of the National Church from the earliest times to the present day . . . in ninety-one pages." It does nothing of the kind. On the contrary, in the preface I distinctly say—"This 'Story of the Church of England' is only a brief outline of historical facts," &c. It pretends to be nothing more.

That the "Popular Story" has its faults I should be the last to deny. If any mistakes are discoverable in its pages, I shall be the first to rectify them, but taken altogether it remains broadly what I believe it to be a fairly true statement of fact. Already 340,000 copies are in circulation, and Reviews such as those of the SATURDAY and the "Contemporary" only serve to create a yet larger demand for copies. As to the little work itself, I am quite content with the verdict of Archbishop Magee—a man whose judgment was wide and whose penetration was deep. He wrote concerning this popular "Story of the Church of England," that in his judgment it "gives in a condensed and popular form one of the best statements of the past history and present work of the Church with which I am acquainted." I did not ask for his Grace's opinion. I did not know that he had ever written a word in its praise, until I received a letter from one of his clergy sending me the words. This opinion has been practically endorsed by upwards of two hundred newspaper reviews—by the recommendations of more than half the present bench of bishops, and by some of the most able and learned laymen of the present day. I am therefore satisfied—more than satisfied—that there is something in it worth reading.

Your obedient servant, G. H. F. NYE.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—In reference to the important question of elementary education, would you allow a small space in your valuable REVIEW for a few remarks?

"You cannot," said the Lord President of the Council lately, "graft a scientific and artistic education upon the stunted stump of a defective elementary education."

This is obvious. Then why cumbereth it the ground?

Education must grow, or it must go.

The proposed specific remedies of age and attendance are mere palliatives, and cannot resuscitate that which is rotten at the root.

There is only one remedy now for the present chaos—a return to first principles.

Our system from the very beginning has been diametrically opposed to the science of the work.

The root idea has been obscured, for education has been made a synonym for instruction.

Instead of leading *out* the intellectual powers, we are actually driving them in, by constructing and building up upon them an heterogeneous mass of knowledge which the children cannot possibly understand, before the mental powers are developed.

This is a moral and intellectual loss to the nation, for it causes degeneracy in the child through repressing the seeds of evil and a loss of national brain power to the country.

As a psychological fact, every action of the mental powers has its development in brain which is really formed only by mental activity and self-help.

But through a system of "telling" that is "instruction" the children are never led to think for themselves. "They think by proxy and talk by rote." All this is done in the spring-time of life when the mind receives its bias. If, then, at this important period we discourage self-effort and dry up the wellspring of understanding by "cramming," what can be expected in the harvest but absolute failure?—Yours obediently,

A LONDON BOARD SCHOOL MISTRESS.

REVIEWS.

THE VULGATE.

"*Nouum Testamentum Domini Nostri Iesu Christi Latine secundum editionem S. Hieronymi: Fasciculus Quartus, Euangelium secundum Iohannem; Fasciculus Quintus, Epilogus.*" Edited by John Wordsworth, D.D., Bishop of Salisbury, with the help of H. J. White, M.A., Fellow of Merton College. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1895, 1898.

THE last half-century has perhaps done more for the science of the textual criticism of the New Testament than all the generations taken together that preceded it. Valuable as were the pioneer labours of Simon and Mill and Bentley, and their successors down to Lachmann, they can hardly weigh in the balance against the work of Tischendorf and Tregelles, of Scrivener and Hort, and other still living scholars. And yet with all this we are rather at the beginning than at the end of the solution of the problem. If the ground has been more or less covered as far as concerns knowledge of the leading Greek manuscripts, that is after all only one department of a large subject-matter. The result indeed of Dr. Hort's theories, were they now recognised as sound, might have been to narrow down the field to the examination or re-examination of a limited number of authorities. But, though Hort demonstrated once for all, in spite of Dean Burgon and his followers, the posteriority of the received text, his own conclusions are being more and more questioned. In view of enlarged knowledge we can no longer concentrate our faith on a single manuscript, even though it is the best; we can no longer dismiss as curtly as he dismissed it the testimony of the ancient type of text misnamed Western. Scholars are beginning to see that a text which combines the earliest evidence of the Far East and the Far West, of both the Syriac and the Latin-speaking Churches, can no longer be neglected. Much work had to be done in this direction: the versions of the New Testament claimed the attention due to their importance—an importance second only to that of the Greek manuscripts, although the scientific study of them hardly goes back beyond 1881, the date of Dr. Hort's memorable "Introduction." At that time the number of trustworthy texts was limited in the extreme; but now we can enumerate, thanks to the enterprise of English scholars and English universities, in Syriac, the discovery and publication of the Lewis codex, with a promise of new editions of the Curetonian at Cambridge and the Peshitto at Oxford; in the Egyptian dialects, a revised edition of the Gospels in Memphitic; in Latin, separate editions of three Old Latin manuscripts of the Gospels, to be followed by the New Testament of Irenæus—no inconsiderable harvest for half a generation, even apart from the special subject of our present study. Of all these undertakings, the edition of the Vulgate New Testament by the Bishop of Salisbury and Mr. White, of which the fourth and fifth fasciculi now lie before us, may safely be pronounced the most important and most arduous; the most arduous, because of the constant contamination which S. Jerome's translation suffered for some centuries from the older Latin versions, whereas the similar revision of the Syriac was copied with an almost mechanical accuracy; the most important, because it deals with what has been for more than a thousand years, and still is, the Bible of one half of Christendom.

That manuscripts of the Vulgate are numerous goes without saying; but those that are older than the age of Charles the Great are after all not so numerous as might have been expected, and even the diligence of our editors has only accumulated a total of fourteen. S. Jerome published his revision of the Gospels in A.D. 383; but of the fifth century no manuscript is extant, of the sixth or early seventh only four, of which three appear to be North Italian, while the fourth, written at Capua in A.D. 543, contains not the separate texts of each Gospel, but only a harmony of the four; those which the editors attribute to the next century are, with one exception, of English or Irish origin. Perhaps it is a little unfortunate that it is just for the earliest group of all that

the editors have depended most on external help. The sources from which they draw their knowledge of the Capua and Milan MSS. are indeed modern; but for the Friuli MS., and for the Brescia MS. of the Old Latin (which, as the nearest representative of the type of text taken in hand by Jerome for revision, the editors have wisely printed below their own Vulgate text), they appear to rely exclusively on the transcripts printed a century and a half ago by Bianchini. Doubtless Bianchini was a far more accurate worker than most of his contemporaries; but personal experience suggests the lesson that there are no collators of the eighteenth century, and not many of the nineteenth, whom it is possible to follow without reserve.

More curious still at first sight than the comparative lack of early MSS. is the lack of any that can be connected with Rome, though Rome was both the original scene of S. Jerome's labours and also the great centre for those times of book production and distribution. An ultimately Italian origin, indeed, belongs, besides the early group alluded to above, to at least two manuscripts written in North England—the Amiatine, connected with Cassiodorus and Calabria, and the Lindisfarne, connected with Naples: a Roman origin cannot be claimed for any. But this is nothing peculiar to the Vulgate. Of the manuscripts now in Rome which can show a continuous history, de Rossi tells us that hardly a single one was written before the tenth or eleventh century. The greatest collections of the Vatican accrued only in the seventeenth century, and were of Gallic, Rhenish, North Italian, anything but Roman origin. The total disappearance of the archives and library of the Lateran, whether the blame rests on Robert Guiscard and his Normans in 1084, or, as de Rossi thinks, on the Imperialists, a century or more later, is probably the most serious loss that Christian historic record has suffered.

Clearly, when manuscripts of Roman or official origin are altogether absent, when late manuscripts are many and early manuscripts few, when no manuscripts late or early have quite escaped the intrusion of alien elements from older versions, the task of an editor could be no easy one. A distinction should indeed be drawn between substantial variations of reading and mere variations of spelling, for it is generally a safe rule that the oldest MSS. give the best spellings, whether or no they give the best readings. For instance, if the guidance of the oldest Vulgate MSS., and especially of the sixth-century Milan MS. (M), be followed, the orthography in words of Greek origin turns out to be a more or less exact transliteration of the Greek, such as S. Jerome may well have intended to substitute for the more Latinised forms existing in infinite variety in Old Latin MSS. So in S. John's Gospel we shall write "hierosolymis" invariably, not "hierosolimis" or the like, "cana" not "chana," "schisma" not "scisma," "ephrem" not "effrem" or "efrem," "scenopogia" not "scaenopogia" or the like, "scariotis" not "scariothis." Of apparent exceptions, "capharnaum" corresponds to the true reading of the Greek; in "israhel," "nathanahel," and so on, the aspirate is perhaps inserted to show that the vowels do not coalesce into a diphthong. If the editors read "sichar" and not "sychar" in iv. 5, they are contradicted by all the earlier manuscripts; if they read "encenia" and not, with M, "encaenia" in x. 22, they violate the constant analogy of words like "bartholomaeus," "iudaei," "phariseus," "galilaea," while the "matheus" to which they appeal was, as the name of an evangelist, by S. Jerome's time probably a domiciled Latin form.

No rule so simple can be formulated to decide between more serious variations of reading, nor does the age of a manuscript carry there the same presumption of merit. Examination of instances scarcely points here to any MS. or family of MSS. as constantly superior to the rest; cases are not rare when the true reading is preserved by a small minority of now this, now that group of witnesses. Thus, of the substantial emendations which the editors have introduced into the traditional Vulgate text, none is more certain than Jo. xxi. 12, where, with the Milan MS. and two others only, they restore "discentium," "disciples," as they had already done in Luc. xix. 37, the scribes having

with singular ingenuity substituted in the latter case "descendentium," in the former "discumbentium," for an unfamiliar phrase, which has created similar difficulties in the quotation of Act. i. 15 in Augustine, "contra Felicem," I. 4, where the manuscripts give "dicentium" and the Vienna editor makes matters worse with "audientium." Similarly, it is on the authority of only two of their MSS. that Wordsworth and White—apparently with reason—remove from their text the episode of the angel troubling the water in Jo. v. 4. Of changes, on the other hand, which they introduce with almost unanimous support from their MSS., we may instance the punctuation of i. 3, "sine ipso factum est nihil: quod factum est in ipso uita erat."

These are clear cases, or at least cases where the arguments to be weighed are simple and precise; but there are many, of course, where the decision is more difficult, and it is natural that in some of them the conclusions arrived at in these volumes may fail to satisfy the judgment of the individual critic. In ix. 3 three readings, "ut manifestentur opera," "ut manifestetur opera," "ut manifestetur opus," are all respectably attested; the editors prefer the first, but the second has the advantage of explaining the other two. In i. 31, iii. 10, and elsewhere, S. Jerome had to face the difficulty of indicating the case of an indeclinable noun without the help given in Greek by the article. Where the phrase was unambiguous, as, for instance, i. 49, "tu es rex israhel," the literal rendering was sufficient, and so in iii. 10 we should read (against the editors, but with a strong if small group of older MSS.) "tu es magister israhel;" while, on the other hand, where the literal rendering would leave the case in doubt, as in i. 31, we feel that, unless S. Jerome was more careless than we should wish to think, the reading which clears up the difficulty ought to be right, and "ut manifestaretur in israhel" should be read with most and the best MSS., rather than "ut manifestaretur israhel" with the editors. But the more intimately the critic makes acquaintance with these volumes, the greater is his sense, not only of the labour and the patience, but of the method, the judgment, and the acumen that have helped to make them what they are.

The extraordinary accuracy of the printing can only be estimated at its full value by those who have had experience in similar work, and to them it will represent an ideal to be aimed at rather than a standard to be attained. Especial gratitude is also due for the forty pages of index which the editors, following one of the best of English customs, have provided for the convenience of scholars, English and foreign, who have now had put into their hands for the first time an adequate edition of at least one portion of the Latin Bible. In issuing this work, the Clarendon Press is doing exactly what a University press should do.

LETTERS OF THE BROWNING.

"The Letters of Robert Browning and Elizabeth Barrett Barrett, 1845 to 1846." Edited by R. B. Browning. In two volumes. Smith, Elder and Co. 1899.

WITH one accord the instantaneous reviewers of these volumes—which contain the love-letters of two of the greatest of our modern poets—have questioned the discretion of Mr. R. B. Browning in presenting them to the world. When the daily press has a fit of delicacy, it outdoes the violet in the excess of its discretion. Now, if ever a work was put forth which was unsuited for the detestable modern fashion of reviewing a book on the very day of publication, it was this solid mass of 1,158 pages, composed entirely of the intimate speech to one another of two great minds in the fulness of their maturity. But the reviewers had to evolve an opinion, and they all lighted on the plausible and ready-made one that it is indiscreet of a son to publish the letters which his father and mother wrote to one another during their courtship. Having developed this sage remark, they began hurriedly to search the pages for anecdotes and scandal. Of these they found scarcely a trace, and they were evidently baffled and annoyed. The safe thing was, once more, to question the discretion of Mr. R. B. Browning.

We have taken time to study these letters more at length, and we do not judge them on a hasty scrimmage between a sleep and a sleep. We have read them with great care, with growing astonishment, with immense respect; and the final result produced on our minds, by what has been really rather a heavy piece of mental work, is that these volumes contain one of the most precious contributions to literary history which our time has seen. They are not "amusing," there is little progress of plot, they make a poor novel in correspondence. As to movement, "Pamela" and the "Vie de Marianne" are rapid in comparison. But for solid value as a contribution to psychology, as a revelation of the inmost thoughts and impulses of two noble natures, for the wholesomeness of their display of simplicity, unselfishness, and goodness of heart, interpreted in the finest literary medium, we do not, for the moment, recollect anything to parallel these letters of R. B. and E. B. B.

Let us face this matter of supposed indiscretion. The letters were written more than half a century ago, and of the writers one has been dead thirty-eight and the other ten years. They were preserved by the survivor in an inlaid box, and when he destroyed all the rest of his correspondence, of these he said: "There they are; do with them as you please when I am dead and gone." Unless we are to accept the meaningless formula that no private letters are ever to see the light, it was obvious that, having escaped the waste-paper basket, these would be sure, some day, to be published. But what day could be devised more fitting than this? It appears to us that Mr. R. B. Browning, with delicacy and tact, has chosen the exact date at which the publication of these letters should be of greatest service to the memory of his parents. They appear at the moment when the fame of each of the writers is ready to be completed, and when public curiosity in them is at its height, and yet not entirely satisfied. Here and now their son places on their twin monument this topmost stone, which finishes the building and gives it its final touch of distinction. With the issue of these volumes, Robert and Elizabeth Browning enter into their glory.

The correspondence here published differs in form from any other with which we are acquainted. In English we may search in vain for a parallel to it. Sometimes we are faintly reminded of Bussy-Rabutin and Mme. de Montmorency—"vous êtes ma première amie," "you are my first friend—have I a second?"—but in intensity and sincerity the later writers have the incomparable advantage. There is more of the spirit, with far less of the grace and the philosophy, of Mme. de Sévigné. A less lucid Rochefoucauld might conceivably have written thus to a modern and unmarried Mme. de la Fayette. These suggestions are mere attempts to feel our critical way among the parallels which offer themselves, and mean no more than that, if we would comprehend the value of these love-letters, we must seek for it by the light of the principles which inspired the epistolary literature of the central group of the French seventeenth century. Where, however, the new letters have an incontestable advantage is in the absence of the ugly moral elements. The egoism which is equally discontented with itself and with the world, the pretentious affectation which seeks to seem other than it is, the cancerous preoccupation with questions of money and family pride, the dryness of soul, the acridity of temper—these, which are with so great difficulty kept in the background when it is a Bussy or a Grignan who writes, are entirely absent from the two souls which display their innocence so exquisitely to one another in these new letters.

If Mr. R. B. Browning's propriety in printing this correspondence demands another plea, it is easily found in the favourable light it throws upon the one dubious act of his father's life. Those who admired Robert Browning most have always wished, in the corner of their hearts, that he had not snatched his wife by a clandestine arrangement from the house of her unconscious father. This wish will never be felt again. To wrap his cloak of darkness over Miss Barrett and ride off in the night with her is seen to be not merely excusable, but absolutely demanded of him by duty. Miss Barrett was forty years of age, and she

was in possession of a small independent fortune, but she was as completely kept a prisoner as any Zuleika or Medora in a Turkish fortress. Hitherto, by the generosity of his children, the character of Mr. Barrett has been little understood. It appears, drawn at full length in minute, unconscious touches, in the course of these letters. Edward Barrett had been born in Jamaica, and brought up in childhood on a plantation; he retained through a long life the ferocious and tyrannical temper which those surroundings so often fostered. He was proud of his children—he had eleven of them—but he regarded them as his chattels, as the instruments of his entertainment and comfort, and he early determined that none of them should ever marry. He was violently and obstinately selfish; he was, perhaps, not to put too fine a point upon it, a little mad; but he possessed a certain domination over his children which made them powerless to disobey him. They all feared and some of them detested him, but none dared to resist him; and this cluster of charming men and women grew up to maturity, the bond-slaves of the selfish caprices of one very odious old gentleman.

Another of Elizabeth Barrett's sisters had received an offer of marriage in every way desirable, and had been so threatened and bullied that she had resigned herself to spinsterhood. When the offer of Robert Browning's heart came to Elizabeth, hers leaped out to meet it, but immediately withdrew again, under a sense of the "absolute impossibility" of her ever marrying anybody. For a long time Browning is under the impression that this "insuperable obstacle" is the health of the lady, which, however, under this new interest, steadily and almost rapidly improves. The suitor, thereupon, urges that she will surely soon be well enough to trust her health in his keeping. Ah, no! she replies, for if she were to become perfectly well the "obstacle" would still be "insuperable." Browning is at his wits' end, for Miss Barrett has never been so confiding, has never so plainly let him see that her heart is wholly his. She is at length obliged to admit that the obstacle is "Papa." Learning, then, that, if "Papa" be apprised of his daughter's intentions, his savage fury will stick at no contrivance for rendering her marriage impossible, Browning is not merely justified, but, as a man of honour, becomes obliged to redeem his bride from her ridiculous and hateful prison by the only means possible to him. He must persuade her to walk to church with her maid while the ogre is away at his business.

When two poets of so intellectual a class write to one another in perfect confidence, it is natural that their language should be of the ingenious kind, for ingenuity is the breath of both their beings. Hence a sort of psychological shorthand, or baby-language for advanced philosophers, is natural to this correspondence, in which either, trying with convulsive severity to lay bare to the other his or her inmost thoughts, lapses every now and then into a strange prolix obscurity. Donne, the favourite poet of metaphysical and learned lovers, is quoted by them both, again and again, as having pushed further than any other writer that transcendental language of the heart which either of them seeks to master. When they discuss literature, as they constantly do, their language is apt to be so allusive as to be scarcely intelligible. Some day these volumes are sure to attract the annotator, who will have a capital field for research in hunting down the amorous correspondents in such remote boskages as Nonnus and the "Christus Patiens." The study of the letters, too, will revive an interest in some poets of the early Victoria age who are little recollected now. That Horne and Hammer, Chorley and Mary Mitford, Talfourd and Kenyon, call for some gentle resuscitation, will scarcely be denied; all these live and flourish in the amiable letters of R. B. and E. B. B. Each of the correspondents wrote a clear, but each a small, faint hand, and the task of deciphering the letters cannot have been slight. It has been well done, but would bear careful revision.

CHRONICLES OF AFRICA.

"A History of the Colonisation of Africa by Alien Races." By Sir Harry H. Johnston, K.C.B. With 8 maps by the author and J. G. Bartholomew. Cambridge: at the University Press. 1899.

GEOGRAPHICAL divisions are often misleading things, and the accident that Africa is practically a huge island has led Sir Harry Johnston into the mistake of attempting to write the history of a continent. There is no unity of idea underlying his book, no interdependence of the historical movements which he relates, no bond except the accidental one that all the events happened in Africa. He might have written a history of Northern Africa and the Desert; he might have written a history of South Africa and the gradual expansion of white settlement; or he might have written a history of European trade, war and mission work in tropical and sub-tropical Africa; and any one of the three subjects would have made a good book. As it is, we get no central point of view; we do not even find him insisting anywhere upon the fact that by the colonisation of Africa two, if not three, distinct things are meant. Of these the first is the definite seizure of African land and settlement by a superior race which either dispossesses or enslaves the native population; the second is the establishment of trading posts in regions where the colonising race cannot maintain itself in health, but can at the most extend an influence; and the third, which may or may not be called colonisation, is the interpenetration of African peoples by alien laws, beliefs, and institutions.

Colonisation of Africa began in historic times with the foundation of trading posts by the Phœnicians on the north and north-west seaboard; and, according to Sir Harry Johnston, about the same time—say, roughly, 1000 B.C.—the Arabs were settling themselves along the East Coast. When the Greeks came to Cyrene, they, after their fashion, fixed themselves not only as traders, but as tillers of the ground, and Northern Africa became what it is now after many centuries reverting to, a ground for the overflow of Southern Europe. In the early days of the Roman province a Roman magistrate ruled very much as M. Bartholot rules now in Tunis, and had probably very much the same trouble with the rival claims of Italian citizens who settled there, and of the local protected population. Then came Islam and the gradual advance of Arab conquest. But whether by Europeans or by Asiatics, Northern Africa has always been colonised, just as South Africa is now colonised, by an alien race who actually held the country. But there has been this sharp distinction. Northern Africa was first Christianised, then converted to Mohammedanism; and the Arab religion has shown a power to spread in Africa and to fuse with African civilisation that Christianity has never rivalled; and we cannot think why Sir Harry Johnston has not enlarged on this very interesting subject. Christianity has gained a hold on parts of Africa more than once in history. In the sixteenth century it was the religion of the kingdom of Congo, and black bishops were appointed by Portuguese missionaries; but the one place in Africa where it has shown any power to survive is in Abyssinia among a Semitic stock. The Arab, on the other hand, not only subjugated the African, but he has modified him; he spread his conversions across the desert to Lake Tchad, and far west of the Niger, down to the very coast-line, he has exercised a ruling influence and been free to come and go among the negro sovereignties as far south as the Benué. This is not colonisation, perhaps, but it is what our colonies on the West Coast have been designed for, and have absolutely failed to do. In all Central Africa—in the great belt between the Zambesi and the north of the Sahara—the Arab has been the one bringer of civilisation. The civilisation that crosses the desert in caravans has succeeded where the civilisation that comes over seas in ships has failed to penetrate. Down to within three hundred miles of the West Coast—at the back of the great forest belt—European goods come, not from Liverpool, but from Tripoli and Tunis. The Arab has done much evil in

Africa, as we know, but he has given to Africa a religion which, in whatever debased form, does hold the African mind; and though Kano and Kuka may not be ideal towns, they probably do not compare altogether ill with Sierra Leone and Cape Coast. For that reason we wish that Sir Harry Johnston had been content to record in less detail the abortive attempts of Spain and Italy to obtain footing in Africa, and had omitted to tell again the often-told story of the recent scramble which led to the Berlin Conference, and had utilised the space thus saved—if space was an object—to tell us more of the colonisation or civilisation by Arab traders and teachers.

For, after all, what we want from an author who has tried his hand at dealing with the African in many regions of Africa is not a detailed résumé of old books, but an insistence upon the facts that are significant. The history of Northern Africa—of Carthaginians, Greeks, Romans, and Moors—if it is to be readable, must be written at greater length than it is written here. What we hoped to get from Sir Harry Johnston was the work of a statesman rather than of a student. We hoped that he would use the past to throw light upon the future; yet we do not find in his pages any serious attempt to face such a problem as that of the black man's position in South Africa, where he multiplies instead of dying out under white rule; and, again, in those parts of Africa which cannot be colonised as South Africa has been, why do we find a bare recital of facts instead of comment? Now that we have staked out our claims, what would he have us do with them? We have been three hundred years in West Africa, and there is a history to write, which in this book is not written, of the part which West Africa played in developing the West Indies. What is to replace slavery? Again, there is the history to be written how a century ago West Africa became a great field for philanthropic experiment. The results of those experiments are nowhere summed up. In short, we go to this book to find out what colonisation has effected in Africa, and we are told that in such a year a fort was built by the Portuguese, in such a year it was ceded to us, in such a year a native chief was deported, in such a year steamboats were put on a lake. The chapter on explorers gives at once too much and too little, too many names, too few details; the chapter on mission work makes no attempt to sum up the results achieved. What we find chiefly to praise in the work is an excellent apparatus of maps and a bibliography of the subject; though it has conspicuous omissions, notably of Lieutenant Hourst's account of his voyage down the Niger and his fascinating study of the Touaregs, or, as Sir Henry Johnston calls them, "the detestable Tawareq"—an epithet which M. Hourst would not endorse. In short, what we have is a useful and well-equipped compilation; but we had expected a book.

THE ANATOMY OF BIRDS.

"The Structure and Classification of Birds." By Frank E. Beddard, M.A., F.R.S., Prosector and Vice-Secretary of the Zoological Society of London. London: Longmans, Green and Co. 1898.

"Birds." By A. H. Evans, M.A., Clare College, Cambridge. Volume IX. of the "Cambridge Natural History." London: Macmillan and Co. 1899.

THE problem of the scientific zoologist presents itself in two sharply contrasted fashions. In some cases Nature, to use a convenient personification, appears to show recklessly the profusion of her resources in design by limiting some extremely peculiar type of structure to a very small number of species. There are, perhaps, half a dozen species of the curious half caterpillar-like, half centipede-like *Peripatus* in existence, living at the Cape, in South America, and in the Eastern tropics, and yet *Peripatus* has less in common with any other existing type of life than has man with the herring. In other cases, an extraordinary profusion of species are to be found exhibiting the narrowest possible anatomical differences. The ponderous ostrich and

the minutest humming-bird are so similar that an anatomical description of the one would serve down to minute details as a guide to dissection of the other, and yet the two birds are extreme instances of the range of avian structure, with hundreds of thousands of species separating them. In the earlier days of morphology, when the doctrine of descent had begun to quicken anatomy with a new life, anatomists paid more eager attention to the smaller, more isolated groups of living things, hoping to find among them important stages in the general evolution of animals. More recently there has been, if not a shifting of interest, at least an extension of interest, to groups where an enormous number of individual species are to be found exhibiting a narrow range of anatomical structure. Such groups obviously are the *arenæ* of active and vigorous growth, and their manifold varieties may be new species in the making, and there would seem to be the opportunity for the naturalist to correlate his observations on the minute differences in habit, in locality, and in general environment, with the minute differences to be detected by the anatomist. These two sides in the scientific study of a large, dominant, and aggressive group are well represented by the two volumes now before us. Mr. Beddard, the prosector of the Zoological Society, is an anatomist above all, and it is to anatomists that his book will prove of most service. The collection at Regent's Park has always been rich in birds, and three successive prosectors, Professor Garrod, Mr. Forbes, and Mr. Beddard, have very greatly increased our knowledge of this part of vertebrate anatomy. Mr. Beddard has brought together the work of his predecessors and his own work, and has added to it the most important observations made by other anatomists. The volume forms an exceedingly valuable collection of the known facts. Among the more interesting features in it we may mention several. When Huxley, in the course of his lectures on vertebrated animals, was about to begin on birds, he announced to a friend his intention to "treat them as extinct forms"—that is to say, to base his system of treatment on study of the skeletal parts. He laid great stress on the disposition of the bones that lie in the roof of the mouth, and for a considerable time his conclusions have been followed by the majority of writers. Mr. Beddard, however, shows that in one respect at least the progress of knowledge has made it impossible to follow this mode of grouping; the condition named by Huxley "*desmognathism*" is not simple, but may be attained by different birds in different ways, and so cannot be regarded as a guide to natural affinities. It has generally been assumed that the curious pieces of bone known as *intercentra*, and interpolated between the joints of the vertebral column, were either absent or extremely rare among birds. Mr. Beddard shows that they occur in a large number of different forms, and may be regarded as quite a common feature of bird anatomy. In dealing with visceral anatomy the writer lays considerable stress on the intestinal convolutions, and reproduces a large number of drawings from recently published memoirs on that subject. These facts appear to furnish new materials useful in considering the relationships of the leading groups of birds.

In classification Mr. Beddard makes an interesting and somewhat novel suggestion. He follows Garrod in associating the passerine birds, the *Pici*, and a few others as "*Anomalognathæ*," taking the view that the discovery by Chalmers Mitchell of rudiments of the *ambiens* muscle in those homalognathous birds in which it was supposed to be absent, removes a great difficulty in establishing the two groups. But he also suggests that the anomalognathous birds may be the more primitive. What is apparently a paradox is always interesting, even in anatomy, and ornithologists no doubt will duly weigh the arguments brought forward. But the broad truths appear to be against the view. There can be no doubt but that the passerines are the most highly specialised, the most bird-like of birds; there is some evidence that geologically they are more recent, and it is certain that at the present time they are the largest, most prosperous, and most dominant of the Avian groups. In taking leave of Mr. Beddard's splendid volume, it is only fair to congratulate the Zoological

Society on the evidence of their fostering care for anatomical as well as zoological science.

In turning over the pages of the new volume of the "*Cambridge Natural History*" the expert and the novice alike must be at once delighted by the accuracy and the beauty of the illustrations. Notwithstanding the example of Bewick and the lavish splendour of the larger monographs, popular works on birds have generally been disfigured by disgraceful illustrations. A badly stuffed specimen seen by a slovenly eye is the obvious basis of the cuts in many well-known books; but Mr. Lodge, who is responsible for most of the illustrations in this volume, has evidently been encouraged by author and publisher to use to full advantage a great talent for observing with accuracy and reproducing with grace. The illustrations are the more important as Mr. Evans is chiefly concerned with the natural history of birds. His book is the natural complement to that of Mr. Beddard, and, instead of dealing with muscles and bones, discusses the distribution, the habits, and the species of the leading genera of birds. The anatomical portion comprises but the barest rudiments of the knowledge used for purposes of classification. We approve of this procedure in principle, but we think that this reticence has been carried rather too far. We have been unable to find either in the prefatory matter or in the taxonomic portion of the volume any mention of the curious differences in the wing of birds known as *quintocubitalism* and *aquintocubitalism*, although these conditions are striking features of the external structure to which the naturalist is supposed to pay special attention.

Mr. Evans wisely follows the useful and well-known classification of Dr. Gadow, as published in Bronn's "*Klassen und Ordnungen*," and pursues his subject in that order. At the beginning of each larger group a general account of the habits and structure is given, and then follows an account of the chief species, with descriptions of their geographical range. In many of the smaller groups nearly every species is mentioned, and it is astonishing to note the mass of information the author has been able to bring together. Naturally, in the larger groups, such as the leading passerine families and genera, it would be impossible to mention even the names of the majority of the species without extending the volume into the monotonous bulk of a mere catalogue. With a little practice, however, any observant person would soon learn by the help of this volume to track down any bird very nearly to its ultimate place in classification.

THE BLACK BOOK OF AN AMATEUR HERALD.

"*Armorial Families: a Directory of Some Gentlemen of Coat Armour, showing which Arms in use at the Moment are Borne by Legal Authority.* Compiled and edited by Arthur Charles Fox-Davies. Third edition. Edinburgh: T. C. and L. C. Jack. 1899.

OWING to various causes there has been of late years a revival of interest in genealogy and in the attendant but less intelligible subject of Heraldry. Greater intercourse with the Continent, and increased familiarity with Continental grades of society, brought into prominence the anomalous position of a British aristocracy for centuries possessed of manors and lordships but untitled—styled "*gentlemen*" as distinguished from "*noblemen*" at home, but on Continental principles noble. This nobility was formerly indicated by the descent of ancient court armour, the use of which was in the reigns of the Tudor and Stuart dynasties regulated by Royal Authority, but has not for the last two centuries, except in special circumstances, been regulated at all. When, therefore, printed accounts of the gentry began to be published, of which the best example was the "*History of the Commoners*," issued in 1834 by Mr. John Burke, that was published which each gentleman claimed in respect of pedigree and arms. "*Peerages*" and "*Baronetages*" had never been critical; if they had been they would have had no commercial success. Accordingly the "*History of the Commoners*" was not critical; the armorial bearings borne by each landed gentleman appeared without challenge. For the last two

centuries, the acquisition of land by merchants—a process always prevalent in England—has greatly developed, and the assumption of armorial bearings, first by purchasers of land, and secondly by a much larger class of the prosperous, has been very general. Mr. Fox-Davies thereupon conceived the idea of publishing a work which should distinguish between those who have right to the Arms they bear, and those who have not right. Supplementing the statements already printed with information derived from answers sent to questions distributed by him, he produced, in 1895, his work on "Armoial Families," in which, on his own authority, with certain professional assistance explained in the introduction, he divided those whom he supposed to be using arms into two classes. These classes are indicated by distinct types of printing, Roman and italic, and at the foot of each open page appears the statement—"The editor undertakes that every entry not in italics is that of a genuinely armigerous person." Of this work a third edition has now appeared, in a preface to which it is announced that the work is to be "biennial." Each edition begins with an introduction almost identical on the "Abuse of Arms." Neither as a treatise on Heraldry nor as a specimen of cultivated English can the introduction be commended. The style is discursive and colloquial, but explicit as to its main proposition—that the use of armorial bearings without right is immoral. We do not suppose that the ordinary Englishman, who by success in a profession or trade has acquired such luxuries as carriages and plate, and who with the help of a seal engraver or heraldic painter proceeded to ornament his newly acquired goods with an heraldic device, ever imagined that he thereby proclaimed himself an impostor or cheat. This Mr. Davies undertakes to teach him, and if, after reading a chapter on the "Abuse of Arms," he remains obdurate, he will be exhibited—biennially—in his true character, by means of italic type.

However true it may be that coat armour is a species of property, and that no man has a right to assert by adopting it that his pedigree is other than it is, it does not follow that Mr. Fox-Davies' self-constituted censorship can be approved. The book is (gratuitously) stated to be non-official, but certain officers of Arms, we learn, are entitled to the author's thanks. No individual Herald or Pursuivant has any authority to decide whether a given Englishman is entitled to coat armour or not, but Mr. Fox-Davies pretends to decide each case by this test—is the right recorded or not at the English College of Arms, the Lyon Office, or the Ulster Office? We doubt whether even a King of Arms in England, except when acting under a Royal Commission, can decide the point judicially, though he can reject or admit a particular shield when tendered for some official purpose. Certainly no Herald can give more than an opinion. If the only test is record or no record, it is implied, we trust unwarrantably, that the archives at the College of Arms have been opened to the author in order that he may expose individuals with some show of authority. But we doubt the test.

We have compared a large number of pages of the first and third editions of Mr. Fox-Davies' work, and if the contents of both volumes resemble these pages, it appears that nearly three hundred persons have between 1895 and 1899 been promoted from italic to ordinary type, and that nearly six hundred persons, exclusive of peers and baronets, condemned to italic type in 1895 are omitted altogether in 1899. Why is this? Was Mr. Fox-Davies wrong in the first edition? He does not apologise. If right in both editions, something must have occurred in each case, on his own statement, to justify the change. Supposing no further edition of "Armoial Families" had been designed or produced, the point we raise would be immaterial. Judgment, of such weight as the author's reputation for knowledge could command, would have passed on a subject of little importance to the public. A work handsome in appearance, testifying to the author's zeal, and, except for the introduction, well compiled, would have interested the few who care. The point lies in the intention—we might almost say threat—to make the issue biennial. Those who decline to take steps which involve the payment of fees to professional men, and who continue to use devices to which they believe themselves entitled, are periodically to

be described by implication as impostors. This, if done at all, should be done officially. In an amateur it is meddling; it is a kind of scandalmongering. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the Kings of Arms for Scotland and Ireland will not in future editions permit their names to be quoted; for, being supreme in their "kingdoms," the use of their names is undesirable, as giving an imprimatur to the work which they cannot intend. Probably, however, on full reconsideration of the scheme, the author will himself perceive the objections to, and possible injustice of, the course he proposes to pursue, and will amend the plan of his work. The book contains much that is admirable and of interest to students of heraldry, though family history is hardly sufficiently prominent to justify the title of the work. The illustrations are made more useful in the last edition by being brought in juxtaposition to the paragraphs, and many of them are evident reproductions of bookplates by good artists, while the paragraph notices of each individual are well arranged, the facts being properly and precisely stated. It would be satisfactory to know whether the paragraphs are published with the consent of the persons they purport to describe. It is difficult to believe that those printed in italic type can all have consented to be thus paraded, and if such consent has not been given, objections exist on grounds of good taste; particularly so, if the statements are made on the authority of those who did not understand how the information given would be applied, and who afterwards, when they did understand, objected to publication. If there is a right and a wrong course of conduct in relation to heraldry, people must be thereto persuaded—they cannot be coerced.

PRETTY CONCEITS.

"The Spirit of Place, and other Essays." By Alice Meynell. London and New York: The Bodley Head. 1899.

IF it seems a sullen and ungracious thing to withhold unqualified admiration from these pretty and ingenious records of Mrs. Meynell's imagination, it must be confessed that her very excellences make it but the harder to condone her faults. How can we forgive the needless obscurity which only suggests inanity, or commend a style which at every turn, or rather twist, brings up the reader against failures of verbal ingenuity such as "lachrymose blunders," "invincibly apart," "the net of a constellation"? While there are many who yield to the fascination of Mrs. Meynell's pretty fancies, content to be alternately soothed with soft-sounding phrases and alarmed into amazed conjecture; others are only irritated by the self-conscious display of dictionary graces, refusing to be charmed by anything so evidently and naively intended to be charming. Mrs. Meynell says really very little in words very many, if prettily arranged. The shortest of these seventeen essays—that on Habits and Consciousness—is the most consequent and satisfactory. It is an appreciation of the sufferings endured by some sensitive and fastidious persons in their acute perception of other people's habits, the recurrent displeasing gesture, phrase, tone, or expression. There can be no peace for such save in the exercise of a perpetual determined tolerance, and the cultivation of pre-occupation and absorption. "Tolstoi's perception of habits is keener than a child's, and he takes them uneasily, as a child does not." Nevertheless, Tolstoi made lasting use of his annoyances.

It is amusing to contrast the just reflections and correct conclusions of Cowley's "Essay on Solitude" with the vague suggestions thrown out here and there by Mrs. Meynell. Their methods are as far apart as the passage of years can make them; yet Cowley's

"While this hard truth I teach, methinks I see
The monster London laugh at me.
I should at thee, too, foolish city,
If it were fit to laugh at misery;
But thy estate I pity"

contains the same lament as Mrs. Meynell's regret for the forfeited solitude of London crowds. There is some confusion of ideas in her graceful talk about

involute spaces, and numberless days, and parks inadequate because their owner is not a real recluse and has none of the impersonal ways of the Apennine herdsman. It is probable, by the way, that the herdsman is too nearly the companion of his flocks, and too little their superior, to be a genuine solitary. Solitude, after all, is less the privilege of the uncrowded rich than the capability of the great and the vocation of the few. It is not an accidental loneliness which may at any time be invaded and destroyed. It is rather a dignified self-sufficiency of mind, which must be voluntary or it shares the pathos of loneliness. And, used with purpose, it is the secret source of the strength of the ambitious. "Ambition itself might teach us to love solitude," says Montaigne; "there's nothing does so much hate to have companions."

There is a literary tone, but little intellect, in the essay on Crabbe's genesis in Milton; in "The Ladies of the Idyll," an entertaining piece of abuse of poor vulgar Olivia and Sophia, who are, after all, very natural pieces of femininity, if not ideal heroines; and in "The Lady of the Lyrics," a description of the perverse lady-love of the Elizabethan convention, containing the only joke of the volume: "She refused to observe the transiency of roses, and never really intended—much as she was urged—to be a shepherdess." In such essays as those on "The Horizon," "Rain," "July," there is the truthful and vivid observation of one who, without being symbolist or interpreter, is sensitive to the influence of natural beauty and aware of its every manifestation. The country has few such lovers as Mrs. Meynell, and keeps no secrets from her. Every day she gathers in a harvest of impressions; she catches the significance of poplars, "salient everywhere and full of replies;" she feels the entanglement of light and darkness thrown into shadows. Much is mere words, pleasant to read, for in spite of affectations they give a sense of freshness and light movement. So great is Mrs. Meynell's love of natural effects, that she would carry them indoors and have her walls a blank space for the sun to decorate with shadows "which play the stealthy game of the year:"—one of her prettiest conceits—let us end with it.

A "FAIRLY TRUE" STORY.

"The Story of the Oxford Movement." By G. H. F. Nye. With an Introduction by the Dean of St. Paul's. London: Bemrose. 1899.

THIS book has evidently been inspired by "the crisis in the Church." It is charity to remember this as providing a measure of excuse for a very slipshod and superficial treatment of a complex and difficult subject. We have already had occasion to call attention to the quality of Mr. Nye's "historical" works: it may suffice to say shortly that this volume maintains the standard of its predecessors. It is, to use Mr. Nye's own description of his treatment of facts, "fairly true." The Dean of St. Paul's has been induced to lend it the authority of his name, and even to extend to its pages the sanction of his deliberate approval. He states that he has "read over the whole of what Mr. Nye has written in proof," and "can truly say that a more fair and equitable treatment of the subject he could not wish for." Dean Gregory's personal reminiscences of the Oxford Movement would have great value, and could hardly fail to be extremely interesting. He received his title for Holy Orders from Keble, and his fellow-curate at Hursley was Isaac Williams. Throughout a long and honourable career he has been in close relation with the High Church party, in which he now counts as a trusted leader. The "Story of the Oxford Movement" from his pen would have been worth having, but amazement is only exceeded by regret that he should condescend to act as showman to Mr. Nye.

Mr. Nye's idea of writing history is to string together apposite and striking extracts from well-known writers. His pages have the appearance of a commonplace book. The greater part of the text is not his own, and the reader throughout is oppressed by the authority of greater names which yet he suspects are adduced more or less unfairly. It is not that Mr. Nye is ever con-

sciously dishonest. We judge him to be sincerely convinced of his own scrupulous fairness; but he has no sufficient basis of general knowledge, he has no conception of evidence, he has no sense of proportion, and he is everywhere governed by certain obstinate and mischievous fallacies.

The form of the book—a series of quotations—renders it almost invulnerable to ordinary criticism. Mr. Nye is a master of that style of popular composition which combines the show of large information and the lightness of very general knowledge. He has been a Church Defence Lecturer, and he carries into his literary work the habits of the platform. His notions of evidence are curious. A Methodist magazine for April 1834 is quoted at length to prove that the Wesleyans are now averse to the proposals of the Liberation Society: an extract from a letter of Wilberforce is the foundation for the statement that "a hundred years ago and more the nation as a whole appears to have been utterly corrupt." "The only redeeming feature of the English Church of those days"—when Butler and Waterland illumined the Episcopal Bench—"was probably its family life of purity and simplicity; the great blot—its worldliness." This, of course, is taken from Dean Church's "Oxford Movement," and it will illustrate Mr. Nye's treatment of his authorities if we adduce the original passage:—"He (i.e. the typical eighteenth-century clergyman) was often the patriarch of his parish, its ruler, its doctor, its lawyer, its magistrate, as well as its teacher, before whom vice trembled and rebellion dared not show itself. The idea of the priest was not quite forgotten: but there was much—much even of what was good and useful—to obscure it. The beauty of the English Church in this time was its family life of purity and simplicity: its blot was quiet worldliness."

This is a very different statement. The Evangelical party, of course, receives hard treatment. It was unorthodox, low-toned, ineffective. This on page 45; but on page 66 we have an inaccurate quotation from Dean Church which credits the Evangelicals with some of the most eminent social services which the English Church can boast. This is thoroughly typical. Mr. Nye has that loose inaccurate mind which renders him a very unworthy witness to the authorities he quotes.

That the Oxford Movement was a notable event all well-informed students of our time will admit; but that it deserves the exaggerated eulogy of its modern admirers few will allow. Mr. Nye, of course, attributes the whole social and religious development of the nation to the Tractarians. He gloats over the figures of the "Church Year Book," and, if ever "the kingdom of God came by observation," must enjoy visions of the golden city at every fresh issue of that useful volume. Birmingham and Manchester are hardly centres of "Catholicism," yet both contribute their handsome totals to the sum of the Tractarian triumph. Mr. Nye has worked himself up to the pitch of regarding opposition to the movement as significant of grave moral fault. This amazing narrative closes with Mr. Rudyard Kipling's "Recessional," for no other reason, apparently, than that it "has the true poetic ring about it which animated the writings of John Keble." Really, Mr. Nye as literary critic is still more wonderful than Mr. Nye as Church historian.

NOVELS.

"The Daughters of Babylon." By Wilson Barrett and Robert Hichens. London: Macqueen. 1899.

FANTASTIC as are the possibilities presented by the laws of permutation and combination, we think they are outdone by the vicissitudes of a calling in which the collaboration of Mr. Wilson Barrett and Mr. Robert Hichens is not a mad dream but an accomplished fact. Sooner, one might think, would "Barabbas" share an ink-pot with Mr. Kipling, or the author of "Bootles' Baby" fall to weaving romances with Mr. Meredith, than that so grotesque a collaboration should come into being. We confess that we would cheerfully surrender—let us say, all hope of ever seeing Mr. Barrett play Hamlet again—if we could learn by

what colossal bribe Mr. Hichens, who, after all, is a man of letters, was induced to embark in Mr. Barrett's galley. Whatever the inducement offered, the bargain must still have been one-sided, for any qualification of Mr. Barrett's literary ideas would necessarily improve them. What possible advantage could be gained by Mr. Hichens is less clear, for in temperament and, we hope, in intention, he is far removed from the writers of tawdry melodrama. Is it possible that he has dreamed some vain dream of creating an atmosphere of literature about the Adelphi stage? Or—to put the matter crudely—has he merely sold himself to an unholy alliance? The result, in any case, is deplorable, for "The Daughters of Babylon" is crude melodrama, and Mr. Hichens, in his apparent efforts to drag the story to a somewhat higher plane, has only succeeded in making it duller than it was meant to be. There are, it is true, certain rudiments of dramatic force in the plot, but there is hardly a scene that is sincere, hardly a passage of dialogue that rings true. All is flat and unprofitable, and we retain but one vivid impression of these many dreary pages—that of the great discovery made by Mr. Barrett or Mr. Hichens—or both—that the verb "to tremble" can be used transitively. In the face of this discovery, it is perhaps impious to wish the book unwritten.

"Her Marriage Vow," by C. V. Rogers (F. V. White and Co.), means very well, though it does indulge in verbless sentences like this: "Small and slight, fragile and graceful as a slender reed, exquisitely dressed in an indescribable dove-coloured frock, with the faintest tinge of rose in its soft, elegant folds." But why, unless there are certain *motifs* which endear themselves by eternal repetition, should fiction still offer us the ugly heiress who is married by the impecunious aristocrat "to save the old place," and ends by winning his heart, after leaving him and teaching him her "true worth"? She is quite sixty years old by this time: our grandmothers wept over her. She should be retired, at once, with "the old place" for a pension, and work no more.

"In the Name of Liberty." By Florence Marryat. Cheap edition. London: Digby, Long. 1898.

"In the Name of Liberty," with its inconceivable Irish conspirators, its magnificent confusion of classes, and its sustained and full-blooded melodrama, is one of Miss Marryat's most rousing stories. In "Digby's Popular Novel Series" it will scintillate as a star of the first magnitude.

"Some Fantasies of Fate." By M. W. Welbore. London: Digby, Long. 1898.

The author must suppose that the dreariest of narratives become interesting when supernatural forces are dragged in. On no other theory can we account for four short stories which are at once so portentously mysterious and so portentously dull. The fate of these fantasies is oblivion.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"A Study of a Child." By Louise E. Hogan. London and New York: Harper and Brothers. 1898.

The proper study of mankind is—the child. So, at least, many people now think; and they say so much about what they think—these new psychologists—that, misled by the "cult," one might almost imagine that the child was something less than recognisable to the mothers and fathers of other days than ours. If we did what we ought to do, it seems that we should put a child beneath a sort of Brobdingnagian spyglass, study it as your zoologist would ponder over the points of a rare animal, elevate infantile scribbles to the level of graffiti at the least, and treasure baby babblings as the Greeks treasured the "utterances" of their oracles. According to one of our humourists, we have recently "discovered" the children; but there is a shaft of irony beneath the wit. And whatever may be said for "pædology," we very much doubt whether any mother or any philosopher, or really anyone else, is likely to be the better able to "discover" the real Liliput and its enchanting people by the perusal of such a book as that now before us. We do not differ from Mrs. Hogan in regard to the great importance of the study of child nature; indeed, it has not been left to any writer of our own time to recognise this importance, for the world's best literature is full of teaching on the subject. Frankly, Mrs. Hogan's title is misleading. Her book is not, strictly, a "study" of a child. It is a diary—

a good boy's diary, written irregularly by his mother, and adorned with a series of "drawings" by the child which are as tedious to the eye as the dry catalogue of normal minutiae that accompanies them is tiresome even to the conscientious reader. Of what conceivable value to the students for whom this book has been compiled is it to know, for example, that one Harold, before he was four months old, "objected" to a Raff concerto, but "tolerated" Handel's Largo; or that the same child, in his second year, began to dance when he heard a street organ? So far as our own experience suffices, Harold is quite a normal child, and does things that most healthy youngsters would do, whether trained on the excellent Pestalozzian system or carefully tended by parents who, while they knew not Pestalozzi, or Froebel, or Herbart, yet had common sense to guide their devotion to their offspring. Mrs. Hogan seems to believe that scientists will value a record of nursery commonplaces; but even if this be granted, such a record should surely be thorough. And thorough Mrs. Hogan's "study" cannot claim to be. We approve the purpose of the book, we respect the pains spent on its production, but regret that the author's scheme has to be accounted as amongst those that have gone "a-gley."

"Some Portraits of Women" (Voyageuses). By Paul Bourget. Translated by William Marchant. London: Downey and Co. 1898.

One may think very highly of M. Paul Bourget's work in general, or one may not; but it is impossible to rate him as an author who is not worth consideration in every sense, or to deny that his style has delicate qualities which demand an equal delicacy from anyone who undertakes to translate him. He is remarkable, moreover, if only because he is one of the very few Frenchmen who have ever understood the difference between Lord Blank and Lord Charles Blank. M. Bourget certainly deserved—more than deserved—to be really well translated. It is not possible to say that this has been done, as a few examples will show. "I should like to have you read the proofs" (p. 34) is a somewhat blatant Americanism, "but that's not much," or at any rate not so much as three pages earlier: "I said to myself 'such a devotion as that should have been given to a man like Zaffoni, disinherited by fame, and full of genius, and chance has given it instead to a common trickster like this Malglaive!'" And I accused [the italics are ours] the irony of fate." A more hopeless mistranslation of *l'accusai* in such a context could not be found. In like fashion, on p. 52, the unhappy M. Bourget is made to say, expressing disappointment for the moment at what he has found in New York, after going through the troubles of an Atlantic voyage, "Was it worth while to *affront* thee [again the italics are ours], O incorruptible Ocean?" Now a person who affronted the Ocean could only be supposed to do so as a punitious preface to taking arms against a sea of troubles, and in no possible context could *affronter* be correctly translated *affront*. So again, on p. 38, "It is *exactly* about your memoirs that I want to speak to you," where *exactement* demands a different word to render its proper meaning; and yet again, on p. 174, "We had dined really in a superior manner," when, word for word, the translation is literal enough, but is as misleading as can be. If it were a good translation, it would mean that M. Bourget had used some preposterous phrase of the worst style and form. On p. 68 we find that a contortionist "sat down in that posture known in the slang of gymnasts as *le grand écart*." This is not a blunder, but it is a piece of carelessness; for it was not beyond human ingenuity and research to discover that the corresponding English phrase is "the splits." Again, on p. 202, *gentilshommes* should not have been left untranslated, any more than should certain other French words in other passages.

"Sanatoria for Consumptives in Various Parts of the World." By F. R. Walters, M.D. London: Swan Sonnenschein. 1899.

In the recent attempt to arouse public sentiment on the dangers and inevitable evils of continuing our present happy-go-lucky treatment of consumption, the most notable point made was the necessity of opening retreats for patients suffering from the earlier stages of the disease. Nothing is now more certain than that consumption is curable, but that its cure requires conditions not to be found in general hospitals, and still less even in the most luxurious private homes. The most constant and most careful medical attention is necessary, and a continuous watchfulness must be maintained. In various European and American institutions most successful results have been obtained by what is called the hygienic or open air treatment. Dr. Walters has made a useful and practical contribution to our knowledge of these methods and institutions by bringing together careful descriptions of a large number of them. It is to be hoped that this volume will prevent the needless and frequently useless cruelty of sending patients on long sea voyages, when it is quite impossible for them to get the necessary medical attention, or the still greater evil of allowing patients to remain with the ordinary world until the last stages of the disease. Hygiene and unremitting care are the two necessities for attacking the disease, and this volume shows how the two may be combined under the best possible conditions.

(Concluded on page 250.)

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"Earl Russell communicated to the College of Physicians that he received a despatch from Her Majesty's Consul at Manilla to the effect that cholera has been raging fearfully, and that the only remedy of any service was CHLORODYNE."—See *Lancet*, 1 December, 1864.

CAUTION.—Beware of Piracy and Imitation.

CAUTION.—Vice-Chancellor Sir W. Page Wood stated that Dr. J. COLLIS BROWNE was undoubtedly the inventor of CHLORODYNE, that the story of the defendant Freeman was deliberately untrue; which, he regretted to say, had been sworn to."—See *Times*, 13 July, 1864.

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"The Founding of South Australia. As recorded in the Journals of Mr. Robert Gouger, First Colonial Secretary." Edited by Edwin Hodder. London: Sampson Low. 1898.

Who is the rightful claimant to the title of founder of South Australia? Originally Mr. Hodder seemed to accord pride of place to George Fife Angas; then Dr. Garnett declared that Edward Gibbon Wakefield was entitled to the honour; now Mr. Hodder reappears with a new claimant in the person of Robert Gouger. The point is not of superlative importance, and, as Mr. Hodder himself suggests, possibly honours are divided. Gouger eagerly seized on the Wakefield system as a wise and scientific means of profitably settling new countries. Mr. Hodder will be interested to learn that the anonymous "Letter from Sydney" published under Gouger's editorship in 1829 was written by Wakefield. Later Gouger and Wakefield developed serious personal differences. Gouger did not adhere strictly to Wakefield's ideas with regard to a minimum price in the sale of colonial land, and Wakefield prophesied the disasters which overtook South Australia and its first Colonial Secretary. The volume may be dipped into for one or two side-lights on Australian history.

In the "Revue des Deux Mondes" for 15 February, the late M. Rothan's article on Napoleon III. and Italy is continued. The story of the attempted alliance with Russia is told at length. As M. Rothan's study proceeds, the sense of Louis Napoleon's failure in diplomacy deepens, and one hardly can help feeling with the writer that French interests were made subservient to the Italian idea; that it was doubtful policy on the part of France to crush Austria, and thus pave the way for the German Empire. In this, however, there may be some wisdom after the event.

It is no easy matter to keep the "Newspaper Press Directory" (C. Mitchell and Co.) up to date. In the issue for 1899 efforts to attain that desirable end have clearly not been wanting, but errors and omissions occur. The reference, for instance, to the SATURDAY REVIEW is very wide of the mark.

For This Week's Books see page 252.

NOTICES.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return, or to enter into correspondence as to, rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

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Persons who desire to be made acquainted with further particulars, showing the persuasive and educational measures or punitive proceedings taken by the Society to prevent cruelty to animals, should apply to the Secretary or to all booksellers for its monthly illustrated journals, "The Animal World," price 2d., and "The Band of Mercy," price 1d.; also to the Secretary for its annual report, price 1s. to non-members; also for books, pamphlets, leaflets, and other literature published by the Society, a catalogue of which may be had gratis; also for copies of its monthly return of convictions, or also its cautionary placards, which will be sent gratis to applicants who offer to distribute them usefully. Address, 105 Jermyn Street.

MONTHLY RETURN OF CONVICTIONS (not including those obtained by the police or by kindred societies) obtained during the month ending February 15, 1899, as follows:

Working horses and donkeys in an unfit state	337
Beating, &c. horses, donkeys, cattle, sheep, pigs, dogs, cats, and fowls	50
Overloading and overdriving horses	4
Travelling horses and cattle when lame	7
Starving horses, cattle, pigs, dogs, cats, and pigeons by withholding food	15
Conveying cattle and sheep on improperly appointed ships and in floats	6
Killing horses, dogs, and pigeons improperly, with consequent suffering	4
Overstocking cows	1
Neglecting to kill cattle when seriously injured aboard ship	1
Withholding water during voyage aboard ship	1
Overcrowding fowls in box during transit	1
Cause in above (owners)	215

During 1899 up to last return

Total for the present year

Thirty-one offenders were committed to prison (full costs paid by the Society), 611 offenders paid pecuniary penalties (penalties are not received by the Society). The above return is irrespective of the assistance rendered to the police in cases not requiring the personal attendance of our officers.

The Committee invite the co-operation and support of the public. Besides day-duty, relays of officers watch all-night traffic in the streets of London. Printed suggestions may be had on application to the undersigned.

ANONYMOUS COMPLAINTS OF CRUELTY ARE NOT ACTED ON. The names of correspondents are not given up when letters are marked "Private." Cheques and Post Orders should be made payable to the Secretary, to whom all letters should be addressed. The Society is GREATLY in NEED OF FUNDS.

105 Jermyn Street, London. JOHN COLAM, Secretary.

The above return is published (1) to inform the public of the nature and extent of acts of cruelty to animals discovered by the Society in England and Wales; (2) to show the Society's efforts to suppress that cruelty by statutory law; (3) to prompt the police and constabulary to apply the Statutes in similar offences; and (4) to make the law known and respected, and to warn cruelly disposed persons against breaking it. Officers are not permitted to lay information, except as directed by the Secretary on written evidence.

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CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY READJUSTMENT.

To the Holders of the following Bonds and Shares :

Central Pacific Railroad Company of California First Mortgage Bonds, Series A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I.
Western Pacific Railroad Company First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B.
California and Oregon Railroad Company and Central Pacific Railroad Company, successor, First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B.
Central Pacific Railroad Company (San Joaquin Valley Branch) First Mortgage Bonds.
Central Pacific Railroad Company Land Bonds.
Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year Six Per Cent. Bonds.
Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year Five Per Cent. Bonds.
Central Pacific Railroad Company Common Stock.

At the request of holders of large amounts of bonds and shares of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, Messrs. Speyer and Co., of New York, have negotiated with the United States Government a settlement of its claim against the Central Pacific Railroad Company as set forth in an agreement, dated 1st February, 1899, which has been accepted by the Railroad Company.

The balance of the indebtedness due to the United States, as of February 1, 1899, as therein stated, amounted, principal and interest, to \$58,819,715.48, which is to be evidenced by twenty 3 per cent. notes of the Central Pacific Railroad Company falling due, one every six months, beginning August 1, 1899, to be secured by an equal amount at face value of new First Refunding Mortgage Four Per Cent. Gold Bonds, part of a total authorized issue of \$100,000,000. Messrs. Speyer and Co. have agreed to purchase \$17,762,543.12 of said notes, earliest maturing, so that the amount of said First Refunding Mortgage Four Per Cent. Bonds to be retained as collateral by the United States will be \$47,056,000—par value thereof.

In order to create these new First Refunding Mortgage Gold Bonds, it is expedient to promptly readjust the financial affairs of the Central Pacific Railroad Company.

With this end in view, the undersigned have formulated a Plan and Agreement of Readjustment dated February 8, 1899, and have agreed to act as Readjustment Managers, as stated therein. A syndicate has been formed by the undersigned to provide all the cash requirements under the Plan.

The plan provides for the creation of the following new securities :—

FIRST.

\$100,000,000 FIRST REFUNDING MORTGAGE FOUR PER CENT. GOLD BONDS.

TO RUN NOT LESS THAN FORTY-FIVE YEARS.

These bonds will bear interest from August 1, 1899, free of taxes, and are to be secured by a mortgage upon all the railroads, terminals and equipment now owned by the Central Pacific Railroad Company covering about 1,349 miles of first track and about 365 miles of second track and sidings by deposit as collateral security therefor of at least ninety per cent. of the present outstanding First Mortgage Bonds of the Central Pacific Railroad Company of California, and the Western Pacific Railroad Company above mentioned, and of at least seventy-five per cent. of the aggregate of all the now outstanding bonds of the Central Pacific Railroad Company and of all now outstanding bonds of the divisional companies by the consolidation whereof it was formed, including such First Mortgage Bonds of the Central Pacific Railroad Company of California and Western Pacific Railroad Company, as will more fully appear from the Plan.

The First Refunding Mortgage Bonds are to be applied as follows :—

To be retained by United States Government as collateral for	
Three Per Cent. Notes.....	\$47,056,000
In partial exchange for existing bonds.....	51,253,500
Purchased by Syndicate to provide cash requirements of Plan...	1,690,500
	\$1,000,000

SECOND.

\$25,000,000 THREE AND ONE-HALF PER CENT. MORTGAGE GOLD BONDS.

TO RUN THIRTY YEARS.

These bonds will bear interest from August 1, 1899, free of taxes, and are to be secured by a mortgage upon all the railroads and properties covered by the First Refunding Mortgage above mentioned, subject, however, to the prior lien of such First Refunding Mortgage, and also by deposit with the Trustee under such mortgage, as acquired, of all securities and moneys now or hereafter held in any sinking fund created or existing by or under any now existing mortgage of the present Central Pacific Railroad Company or any divisional Railroad Company by the consolidation whereof it was formed, and to be also secured by a Trust Deed upon all the lands now covered by the mortgage, securing the Land Bonds of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, dated October 1, 1870. Fuller particulars are contained in the Plan.

The Three and One-Half Per Cent. Mortgage Gold Bonds are to be applied as follows :—

In partial exchange for existing bonds.....	\$13,695,000
Purchased by Syndicate to provide cash requirements of Plan...	11,305,000
	\$25,000,000

THIRD.

\$20,000,000 FOUR PER CENT. CUMULATIVE PREFERRED STOCK.

This Preferred Stock will be delivered to the Southern Pacific Company in consideration of the issue of an equal amount at par value of the Southern Pacific Company's Four Per Cent. Gold Bonds hereinafter mentioned.

FOURTH.

\$67,275,500 COMMON STOCK.

This stock will be applied as follows :—

Sold to Syndicate and offered for sale to depositors of present Common Stock upon payment of \$2 per share deposited.....	\$67,275,500
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The Central Pacific R. R. Co. London Shareholders' Committee, of which F. G. Banbury, Esq., M.P., is Chairman, representing a majority of the outstanding shares, have entered into an agreement with the Southern Pacific Company and the Readjustment Managers, providing, among other things, for the purchase by the Southern Pacific Company upon the terms and conditions specified in such agreement of said shares or the new shares to be issued therefor under the Plan. The shares held by the Shareholders' Committee have been deposited with the Readjustment Managers under said Plan and Agreement of sale, and the privilege has been reserved to the other shareholders, who shall deposit their shares under the Plan with MESSRS. GILVEY, MILLIS, CURRIE & CO., 67 Lombard Street, London, E.C., and also make the cash payment in respect thereof as therein provided, to sell their shares, to the Southern Pacific Company upon the same terms, provided they avail themselves of such privilege within the period to be prescribed by the Readjustment Managers for the purpose. Unless shareholders at the time of depositing their share certificates shall notify the undersigned of their election not to sell to the Southern Pacific Company, and shall have their Readjustment Certificates of Deposit then stamped "non-assented," the undersigned will hold the deposited shares of stock subject to such contract of sale with the Southern Pacific Company, and will deliver such shares, or the corresponding new shares when issued, to such Company in exchange for the securities to be given as the purchase price thereof.

The basis of exchange of existing bonds and of sale of new stock is shown in the following table :—

Existing Bonds to be Deposited.	Each \$1,000 Receives		
	*Cash.	New 4 per cent. First Refunding Mortgage Gold Bonds.	New 3½ per cent. Mortgage Gold Bonds.
Central Pacific Railroad Company of California First Mortgage Bonds, Series A ..	33.33	1,000	50
Series B, C, D, E, F, G, H and I ..	29.17	1,000	50
Western Pacific Railroad Company First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B ..	35.00	1,000	50
Central Pacific Railroad Company (San Joaquin Valley Branch) First Mortgage Bonds ..	50.00	1,000	75
Central Pacific Railroad Company Land Bonds ..	41.67	500	700
Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year 6 per cent. Bonds ..	50.00	500	900
Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year 3 per cent. Bonds ..	41.67	500	800
California and Oregon Railroad Company and Central Pacific Railroad Company, successor, First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B ..	29.17	1,000	500

* Interest from the due dates of the last coupons matured prior to 1st February, 1899, at the same rates, up to the date when the new bonds begin to bear interest—namely, 1st August, 1899.

Holders of Certificates of Deposit for Central Pacific common stock (not stamped "Non-assented"), on payment of \$2 per share deposited will be entitled to receive for each \$100 share deposited :—

Southern Pacific Company's stock	\$100
Southern Pacific Company's Four Per Cent. Gold Bond, bearing interest from August 1, 1899	\$25

A Syndicate has been formed to furnish the cash required to provide for the purchase of the four Three Per Cent. Notes maturing from August 1, 1899, to February 1, 1901, and for new equipment, improvements and other purposes of the New Company, and also has agreed to purchase for cash, when and so soon as the Plan is declared operative, all the following existing bonds at the prices stated :—

\$25,881,000 Central Pacific Railroad Company, of California First Mortgage Bonds, Series A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I ..	At the price of par and accrued interest in New York.
2,735,000 Western Pacific Railroad Company First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B ..	
6,080,000 Central Pacific Railroad Company (San Joaquin Valley Branch) First Mortgage Bonds ..	
2,134,000 Central Pacific Railroad Company Land Bonds ..	At the price of 105 and accrued interest in New York.
56,000 Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year Six Per Cent. Bonds ..	
10,245,000 Central Pacific Railroad Company Fifty-Year Five Per Cent. Bonds ..	
10,340,000 California and Oregon Railroad Company and Central Pacific Railroad Company, successor, First Mortgage Bonds, Series A and B ..	At the price of 109 and accrued interest in New York.

Holders of above bonds who prefer to accept cash rather than to take the new securities provided in the Plan must signify their election to take cash when depositing their securities, within such time as may be fixed by notice, by having their Certificates of Deposit stamped accordingly by the Depositary or the firms acting as their agents in Europe, and will thereupon be entitled to receive the said cash payment therefor at the time that the Plan is declared operative, and upon surrender of the Certificate of Deposit so stamped.

Pursuant to the above-mentioned agreement made between the Central Pacific R.R. Co. London Shareholders' Committee, the Readjustment Managers and the Southern Pacific Company, that Company agrees, among other things, that it will, at the time and in the manner therein provided, issue its Four Per Cent. Gold Bonds (aggregating \$36,819,000 face value), bearing interest at the rate of four per cent. per annum from August 1, 1899, free of taxes and having fifty years to run (but subject to redemption at any time, at the option of the Southern Pacific Company, at par and accrued interest, upon six months' notice by publication). Such bonds shall be issued only to the following amounts :—

In part payment of the purchase price under the Plan of the Common Stock of the Railroad Company, being one-fourth of the par value thereof	\$16,819,000
In consideration of the issue of the new Preferred Stock of the Railroad Company as above stated (\$12,000,000 issued on completion of Readjustment, \$3,000,000 reserved as stated in Plan)	15,000,000
Reserve to be issued only for betterments or additions to the Railroad Company's properties at the rate of not exceeding \$200,000 par value thereof per annum, against the issue of an equal amount at par value of the new Preferred Stock	5,000,000
	\$36,819,000

The said Four Per Cent. Gold Bonds are to be secured by a Collateral Trust Mortgage covering all the new Preferred Stock as and when the same shall be issued and delivered; and also all the Common Stock of the Railroad Company, purchased by the Southern Pacific Company.

The Southern Pacific Company further agrees that upon delivery to it of \$12,000,000 of new Preferred Stock, and at least 377,194 shares of the Common Stock of the Railroad Company, it will simultaneously, by appropriate written instruments endorsed thereon, guarantee unconditionally the payment of the principal and interest of the First Refunding Mortgage Four Per Cent. Gold Bonds, and of the Three-and-a-Half per Cent. Mortgage Gold Bonds.

The annual fixed charges after readjustment and after the payment of all the notes given to the United States Government as proposed, it is estimated, will be not over

The average net earnings after payment of taxes, rentals and all other expenses, for the 104 years ending June 30, 1898, were, including miscellaneous income (as stated in the Plan)	\$4,893,259.17
Add present annual income from Sinking Fund Securities (as reported by the Company)	689,680.00
	\$5,582,939.17

It thus appears that the fixed charges of the New Company on completion of the readjustment will be well within the past net income of the property.

It is estimated that under the readjustment upwards of \$4,500,000 cash will be provided, which will be immediately available for improvements on the properties of the Railroad Company

Participation under the Plan of Readjustment in any respect whatsoever is dependent upon the deposit of securities with Speyer & Co., of New York, the Depositary named in the Readjustment agreement, either at their office, No. 30 Broad Street in the City of New York, or at the offices of Speyer Brothers, London; Laz. Speyer Ellissen, Frankfurt-on-Main; Teixeira de Mattos Brothers, Amsterdam; and the Deutsche Bank, Berlin, acting as agents for the Depositary under this Plan. The Plan will embrace only securities so deposited within such time as may be fixed by notice. No securities will be received on deposit unless in negotiable form, and bonds must carry all coupons maturing after February 1, 1899.

As stated in the Plan, holders of the Common Stock of the Central Pacific Railroad Company may purchase from the Syndicate the new Common Stock, or become entitled to receive the other benefits accruing to depositors of the present Common Stock under the Plan by depositing their old stock with Messrs. Speyer & Co. or the firms acting as their agents in Europe for that purpose on the following terms: As consideration for shares of the New Company, or such other securities and benefits as may be provided in lieu thereof, the depositors of Common Stock must pay \$2 per share deposited, and will thereupon be entitled, on the completion of the Readjustment, to receive \$100 in new Common Stock or such other securities and benefits as may be provided in lieu thereof.

The payments by depositors of such Common Stock must be made for account of the Syndicate at the offices of Speyer & Co., in New York, or any of the firms acting as their agents in Europe for that purpose, when and as called for by advertisement published at least twice a week for two successive weeks in at least two of the daily newspapers of general circulation published in the cities of New York, London, Frankfurt-on-Main, Amsterdam, and Berlin respectively. Failure to make such payment when and as payable will subject the deposited stock, and all rights therein, or in respect thereof, to forfeiture to the Syndicate as provided in the Readjustment Agreement.

The Depositary will issue proper Receipts or Certificates of Deposit for all securities deposited. Deposited securities will be placed with the Central Trust Company of New York, or its agents in Europe, as custodian.

The undersigned believe the Readjustment proposed advantageous to the holders of the bonds and shares of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, and they urge prompt acceptance and deposit of securities.

Copies of the Agreements and the United States Government and with the Southern Pacific Company and also copies of the Plan and agreement of Readjustment are now ready for distribution, and all security holders are invited to obtain them from the undersigned, as all depositors are bound thereby without regard to this notice and the Plan and Agreement set forth in detail many features which it is impracticable to condense into this circular, but which are of much importance to security holders.

February 20th, 1899.

SPEYER BROTHERS, 7 Lothbury, London, E.C.
SPEYER AND CO., New York.
LAZ. SPEYER ELLISSEN, Frankfurt-on-the-Main.
TEIXEIRA DE MATTOS BROTHERS, Amsterdam.
DEUTSCHE BANK, Berlin.

CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY FIRST MORTGAGE BONDS.

Series A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I.

To the Holders of Certificates of Deposit issued under Bondholders Agreement dated 14th August, 1897:

Pursuant to the requirement of the above mentioned Bondholders Agreement, holders of above Certificates of Deposit are hereby notified that a Plan of Readjustment, dated 8th February, 1899, has been formulated, and that the undersigned, as Depositaries, under said agreement of 14th August, 1897, have adopted and approved such Plan as authorised in said agreement. Copies of said Plan of Readjustment have been lodged at the offices of the undersigned in the City of New York, and at the office of Speyer Brothers, in the City of London, of Laz. Speyer Ellissen, in the City of Frankfurt-on-the-Main, of Teixeira de Mattos Brothers, in the City of Amsterdam, and of the Deutsche Bank, in the City of Berlin, for inspection by holders of Certificates of Deposit.

As provided in said agreement of 14th August, 1897, any certificate holder not assenting to such plan may, at any time before 22nd April, 1899, withdraw the bonds represented by such certificates upon surrender of his certificates: but all certificate holders who shall not within said time withdraw their bonds shall be deemed to have assented to such Plan and to the Readjustment Agreement, dated 8th February, 1899, and shall be bound thereby without further act or notice, and the Depositaries shall thereupon use the bonds of such certificate holders for the purpose of carrying out such plan, and shall deposit such bonds thereunder.

The existing Certificates of Deposit above mentioned will entitle assenting holders to new securities, as provided in the Plan of Readjustment, in exchange for their present bonds, as and when such new securities are issued, without other certificate issued by the Readjustment Managers.

In order to accelerate the carrying out of the Plan, holders of the existing certificates of Deposit above mentioned should present their Certificates promptly at the offices of the undersigned, or of any of the Readjustment Managers, to be stamped as assenting to the Plan of Readjustment.

Any holder desiring to accept cash for his bonds, rather than the new securities as provided in the Plan, must present his Certificates of Deposit to be stamped accordingly on or before 23 March, 1899.

New York, 20 February, 1899.

SPEYER AND CO., New York,
Depositaries.

With reference to the foregoing announcement of Messrs. Speyer and Co., New York, the undersigned are prepared to stamp, free of charge, Messrs. Speyer and Co.'s Certificates of Deposit for Central Pacific Railroad First Mortgage Bonds on presentation of the same at their offices for that purpose.

7 Lothbury, London, E.C.,
20 February, 1899.

SPEYER BROTHERS.

CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY FIFTY-FIVE PER CENT. MORTGAGE BONDS.

DUE APRIL 1, 1939.

TO THE HOLDERS OF CERTIFICATES OF DEPOSIT ISSUED UNDER BONDHOLDERS AGREEMENT DATED OCTOBER 1, 1897:—

Pursuant to the requirement of the above-mentioned Bondholders Agreement, holders of above Certificates of Deposit are hereby notified that a Plan of Readjustment, dated February 8, 1899, has been formulated, and that the undersigned, as Depositaries under said agreement of October 1, 1897, have adopted and approved such Plan as authorised in said agreement. Copies of said Plan of Readjustment have been lodged at the offices of the undersigned for inspection by holders of Certificates of Deposit.

As provided in said agreement of October 1, 1897, any certificate holder not assenting to such plan may, at any time before March 23, 1899, withdraw the bonds represented by such certificates upon surrender of his certificates: but all certificate holders who shall not within said time withdraw their bonds shall be conclusively deemed to have assented to, approved and adopted such Plan and the Readjustment Agreement, dated February 8, 1899, and shall be bound thereby without further act or notice, and the Depositaries shall thereupon use and transfer the bonds of such certificate holders for the purpose of carrying out such Plan, and shall deposit such bonds thereunder.

The existing Certificates of Deposit above mentioned will entitle assenting holders to new securities as provided in the Plan of Readjustment in exchange for their present bonds, as and when such new securities are issued, without other certificate issued by the Readjustment Managers.

Any holder of such Certificates of Deposit desiring to accept cash for his bonds, rather than the new securities as provided in the Plan, must present his Certificates of Deposit to be stamped accordingly on or before 23 March, 1899.

SPEYER AND CO., New York,
TEIXEIRA DE MATTOS BROTHERS, Amsterdam,
DEUTSCHE BANK, Berlin,
Depositaries.

February 20th, 1899.

With reference to the foregoing announcement, the undersigned are prepared to stamp, free of charge, the above mentioned Certificates of Deposit for Central Pacific Railroad Company 50-year 5 per Cent. Mortgage Bonds on presentation of the same at their Offices for that purpose.

7 Lothbury, London, E.C.,
February 20th, 1899.

SPEYER BROTHERS.

To the Holders of

CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY SHARES.

The Plan for the readjustment of the Securities of the Central Pacific Railroad Company has been carefully considered by us, and, in our opinion, the terms offered to the Shareholders are quite satisfactory. In connection with this readjustment, we have entered into a Contract with the Southern Pacific Company, under which we have deposited under the Plan all the 377,194 Central Pacific Railroad Company Shares held by this Committee, and have agreed to exchange the same, dollar for dollar, for Southern Pacific Company Shares, plus \$25-4 per Cent. Southern Pacific Company Gold Bonds for each Central Pacific Railroad Company Share, upon which a cash payment of \$2 per Share is made, as stated in the Plan.

We therefore advise all Shareholders, who have not already done so, promptly to deposit their Central Pacific Railroad Company Shares with Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie and Co., 67 Lombard Street, London, E.C., under the Plan, and that the Shareholders should accept the offer to exchange Southern Pacific Company Shares, plus \$25-4 per Cent. Southern Pacific Company Gold Bonds, for Central Pacific Railroad Company Shares, on the terms stated in the Plan.

London: 20th February, 1899.

F. G. BANBURY, M.P.,
JOHN B. AKROYD,
LORD ALWYN COMPTON, M.P., } LONDON.
DANIEL MARKS,
JOSEPH PRICE,
AUGUST BELMONT,
JOHN G. CARLISLE,
GEORGE COPPELL, } NEW YORK.

Central Pacific Railroad Company London Shareholders' Committee.

To the Holders of

THE CAPITAL STOCK OF THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY.

A majority of the above-named stock having been deposited under the Plan and Agreement of the Re-adjustment of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, dated February 8th, 1899. Notice is hereby given that the time for the further deposit of such stock without additional charge has been limited to and including March 23rd, 1899, after which date deposits of such stock will be accepted, if at all, only upon such terms as the undersigned may impose.

Dated February 23rd, 1899.

SPEYER BROTHERS, LONDON.
SPEYER & CO., NEW YORK.
LAZ. SPEYER ELLISSEN, FRANKFURT-ON-THE-MAIN.
TEIXEIRA DE MATTOS BROTHERS, AMSTERDAM.
DEUTSCHE BANK, BERLIN.

To the Holders of

SPEYER AND CO.'S CERTIFICATES OF DEPOSIT FOR CAPITAL STOCK OF THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPANY.

Pursuant to the Plan and Agreement for the readjustment of the Central Pacific Railroad Company, dated February 8th, 1899, the undersigned hereby call for the cash payment of \$2 per share deposited to be made by depositors of said stock pursuant to the provisions thereof.

Payment of such amount must be made on or before April 6th, 1899, to the undersigned for account of the Syndicate at the Office of the Depositary, Messrs. Speyer & Co., 30 Broad Street, New York, or at the rate of 49½ p. per \$1 at their Agents, Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie, and Co., 67 Lombard Street, London, E.C.

Payments must be received for on the Certificates of Deposit by the Depositary or Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie, and Co.

Failure to make such cash payments on or before such date will subject the deposited stock to forfeiture to the Syndicate as provided in the Readjustment Agreement.

Dated February 23rd, 1899.

SPEYER BROTHERS, LONDON.
SPEYER & CO., NEW YORK.
LAZ. SPEYER ELLISSEN, FRANKFURT-ON-THE-MAIN.
TEIXEIRA DE MATTOS BROTHERS, AMSTERDAM.
DEUTSCHE BANK, BERLIN.

THE MEXICAN CENTRAL RAILWAY SECURITIES COMPANY, LIMITED.

Directors.—Sir Henry Oakley (Chairman), Sir Vincent Caillard, H. J. Chinnery, Esq., Laurence Currie, Esq., Robert Fleming, Esq., C. Sligo de Pothor, Esq.

Trustees for Debenture Stock and Debentures.—Right Hon. Lord Hillingdon, Right Hon. Lord Revelstoke, H. W. Smithers, Esq.

TO THE HOLDERS OF FOUR PER CENT. CONSOLIDATED MORTGAGE BONDS OF THE MEXICAN CENTRAL RAILWAY COMPANY, LIMITED.

1. The Mexican Central Railway Securities Company has been formed at the suggestion of large holders of the above-named bonds with the following objects:

First.—To acquire the Four per Cent. Consolidated Mortgage Bonds of the Mexican Central Railway Company, Limited, and to issue in their place two classes of securities which will meet the wants of two different classes of investors, and thus bring about a substantial appreciation of the market value, besides giving to those who desire it the additional safety of registration.

Second.—To have an English organisation established which will be in close touch with the American Company, and whose preponderating holding of the bonds will assure for it a position of influence.

Holders who desire to deposit their bonds must do so on or before 1st March, 1899, at the banking house of Messrs. Glyn, Mills, Currie and Co., 67 Lombard Street, London, E.C., accompanied by forms for deposit, which, with the full explanatory circular, can be obtained at the Company's Bankers, or at its Registered Office. After such date power is reserved to impose less favourable terms of deposit, in the discretion of the Directors.

It is evident that the success of the plan depends upon the promptitude with which holders of the present bonds deposit. If the Directors do not deem the amount deposited sufficiently large, the bonds and the £2 per bond paid thereon will be returned without deduction.

The Memorandum and Articles of Association of the Company, together with drafts of the following documents, viz.:

(a) Deed for deposit of bonds;
(b) Deed of Trust and Mortgage to secure the proposed issues of Debenture Stock and Debentures, with forms of Debenture Stock and Debenture attached; and
(c) Voting agreement in respect of the shares to be held in trust;

can be inspected at the offices of the Company's Solicitors, Messrs. Bompas, Bischoff, and Co., 4 Great Winchester Street, London, E.C.
By Order of the Board,
FREDK. M. SPANKIE, Secretary.
3 Gracechurch Street, E.C., London, 22 February, 1899.
Telegraphic Address—"Mistral, London."

MR. JAMES SWINBURNE, M.I.C.E., Vice-President, Institution of Electrical Engineers, London, says:—"Nernst's Lamp is, in my opinion, the greatest invention in Electric Lighting since the infancy of the industry."
The Subscription List will open on Monday, the 27th day of February, 1899, and will close for Town on Tuesday, February 28th, and for Country and the Continent at 10 a.m. on Wednesday, March 1st.

NERNST ELECTRIC LIGHT, LIMITED.

(Incorporated under the Companies Acts, 1862 to 1898.)

CAPITAL - - - - - £320,000,

DIVIDED INTO

140,000 Preference Shares of £1 each and 180,000 Ordinary Shares of £1 each;

The Vendors taking the whole of the Ordinary Shares, fully paid, in part payment of the Purchase Price.

The Preference Shares will rank as to Capital in priority to the Ordinary Shares, and will be entitled to a Preferential Dividend of 7 per cent. (non-cumulative) and, further, to a *pro rata* share of any profits it may be determined to distribute after 7 per cent. has been paid on the Ordinary Shares and provision made for a Reserve Fund.

The Memorandum of Association provides that no Debenture Stock can be created to rank in front of the Preference Shares except by resolution passed by a majority of not less than three-fourths of the Preference Shareholders at a Special Meeting convened for that purpose.

There are now offered for Subscription 115,000 Preference Shares.

PAYABLE—

5s. on Application;

5s. on Allotment;

5s. April 1, 1899;

5s. May 1, 1899.

DIRECTORS.

SIR HENRY C. MANCE, C.I.E., Past President of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, Director of the Electric Construction Company, Limited, 32 Earl's Court Square, S.W. (Chairman).

J. G. DALZELL (Chairman "Black and White"), 65 Ashley Garden, S.W.

B. M. DRAKE, M.I.E.E., Messrs. Drake and Gorham, Electrical Engineers, 66 Victoria Street, S.W.

J. GEOFFREY FORT, Forest Lodge, Ashstead, Surrey, } Directors of "Nernst
B. ZUSMAN, 4 Drapers Gardens, E.C., } Lamp, Limited.

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL ADVISOR.

DR. WALTHER NERNST, Professor, Goettingen University.

CONSULTING ENGINEER.

JAMES SWINBURNE, M.I.C.E., Vice-President of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, London.

BANKERS.

BARCLAY AND COMPANY, LIMITED, 54 Lombard Street, E.C., and Branches.

SOLICITORS TO THE VENDORS.

GUEDALLA & CROSS, 21 Essex Street, Strand, W.C.

SOLICITORS TO THE COMPANY.

BUDD, JOHNSONS & JECKS, 24 Austin Friars, E.C.

BROKERS.

ALEXANDER WILSON & SONS, 11 Birch Lane, and Stock Exchange, E.C.

AUDITORS.

DELOITTE, DEVER, GRIFFITHS & CO., 4 Lothbury, E.C.

SECRETARY AND OFFICES (pro tem.).

WILLIAM CHAPLIN, 130 Dashwood House, London, E.C.

ABRIDGED PROSPECTUS.

This Company has been formed to acquire and work in the countries mentioned hereafter the Patent rights (free from any royalty) of the Nernst Electric Lamp, which will, it is claimed, occupy the same position in electric lighting as the Welsh-burner in gas lighting.

It has long been known that to render the electric light cheaper a new form of lamp was necessary, which would utilise to better advantage the electric current, and this is the function of the Nernst Lamp.

Nernst's invention consists in the use of a rod of highly refractory oxide instead of carbon, as a light-giving body in incandescent lamps. Such materials are insulators when cold, but when heated are conductors; and as they stand a much higher temperature than carbon they can be run at a much higher electrical efficiency. As the oxides are not consumed, a vacuum globe is unnecessary.

Large Nernst Lamps contain an electrical heating hood, to get the rods hot enough to begin to conduct. As soon as the rod takes the current the hood is cut out of circuit automatically. The rod itself with the two wires on which it is mounted is easily replaceable. In smaller lamps, the movable hood is replaced by a stationary heater, so that the lamp is cheaper and simpler.

Small lamps can be sold at an exceptionally low price without automatic lighters, merely entailing the slight trouble of lighting with a match. Such lamps are specially useful where great cheapness is important, thus solving the problem of the poor man's electric light. When preferred even the smallest lamps can be made with automatic lighters.

The Nernst Lamp is not only very efficient, but it can be made to work on high electrical pressures as the specific resistance of the material, even when white hot, is very much higher than that of carbon. The lamps can be used on existing installations.

According to Mr. Swinburne, the following are among the advantages of the Nernst Lamp:—

1. The consumption of power is, at most, 1.5 to 1.6 watts per candle-power, being about 60 per cent. less than the ordinary 4-watt incandescent lamp, thus saving three-fifths of the Electric Lighting Bill.
2. The Nernst light is pleasant and becoming. Its light does not fall off materially during the life of the rod, and as there is no bulb, there is no loss of light through either internal blackening, or external dust and dirt.
3. Unlike the present type of incandescent lamp, which can only be used commercially in circuits not exceeding 250 volts, the Nernst Electric Lamp can be commercially employed either with direct or alternating currents, up to any pressure compatible with safety.
4. The manufacture, on a small scale, of the rods or light-emitting bodies, has already resulted in rods which have lasted the equivalent of a year's ordinary daily usage. Further experience in wholesale manufacture may be expected to give even better results.
5. The rod of the Nernst Electric Lamp with its wire mount is detachable, and when worn out can be easily replaced by anyone, the body of the lamp serving for an indefinite period, whereas the ordinary incandescent electric lamp is of no use when its filament is broken or the glass darkened. This is an economic advantage in favour of the Nernst Electric Lamp of the utmost importance.
6. The cost of production of the Rod will be exceedingly small.
7. The process of manufacture is very simple, and plant of an inexpensive kind only is necessary. There is no "flashing," no electrical mounting, no expensive vacuum, and, comparatively, no waste, as a used-up rod merely means mounting another in the same wire; it does not mean scrapping a complete lamp. The holders of the automatic lamps are merely ordinary fitting work, demanding no new type of manufacture.

8. Compared with the Arc Lamp, the Nernst has many advantages in respect to—

- (a.) First Cost, which is about one-eighth to one-tenth of the Arc.
- (b.) Maintenance, the whole of the expense of carbons and trimming and the cleaning of the elaborate mechanism of the Arc regulator being saved.
- (c.) Pressure. Unlike the Arc, the Nernst Electric Lamp can be made to take very high pressures; for instance, a single rod for 400 volts is only about 24 inches long, and by arranging two in series in each lamp, there is no difficulty in running parallel on 1,000 volt circuits without transformers.
- (d.) Absolute steadiness and freedom from flickering and hissing.

For these reasons it is expected that the Nernst Electric Lamp must in many cases put the existing lamps entirely out of competition, and that it will be in great demand for the lighting of streets, mines, factories, mills, steamships, railway stations, sidings and carriages, wharves, public institutions, places of worship, theatres and music halls, shops, hotels, restaurants, &c., &c.

Tests and examinations have been made in London, Goettingen, and Buda-Pesth by Mr. James Swinburne, M.I.C.E., Vice-President of the Institution of Electrical Engineers, London, whose report, made for the Vendors, is as follows:—
82 Victoria Street, London, S.W.

23rd January, 1899.

"According to instructions, I have carefully examined the Nernst Lamps sent to me, and have also visited Prof. Nernst's laboratory in Goettingen, and the Nernst Lamp Department at the Works of Messrs. Ganz and Co., at Buda-Pesth, and have had Lamps running time tests under my supervision.

"Nernst's Lamp is, in my opinion, the greatest invention in Electric Lighting since the infancy of the industry.

"The Nernst Lamp has a field which includes the whole of Electric Lighting. It will, I believe, oust the Arc Lamp in nearly all cases, have the field to itself for Electric Lights between 50 and 200 candles, and will probably eventually replace the Carbon Incandescent Lamp in common use, being able to compete with it at once in all cases where having to light the lamp with a match is not a hardship, and it is important to reduce the supply company's bill some sixty per cent.

"The patents have been submitted to me, and I can see no way in which electrical ingenuity can get round the claims."

JAMES SWINBURNE

The Patents have also been submitted to Messrs. J. Fletcher Moulton, Q.C., M.P., and A. Colefax, who have given the following opinion:—

We are of opinion that no difficulty arises as to the novelty or utility of Professor Nernst's invention itself. The invention is, in our view, fundamentally different from anything that preceded it. The only questions that arise depend on the dates and form of the applications made for patents in the different countries.

In our opinion the Letters Patent are valid, which have, as we are informed, been granted in the following countries, that is to say, Argentine, Cape Colony, Egypt, New South Wales, New Zealand, South Australia, Venezuela and Victoria.

With regard to other countries in respect of which the Nernst Lamp, Limited, possesses rights we are unable at present to advise finally, for we have no information that Patents have as yet been granted, and in some cases even replies acknowledging receipt of the applications are not yet to hand. Subject to revision of our opinion when we know the dates of all the applications and that Patents have been granted we are of opinion that the Letters Patent in the following countries will be valid: Brazil (so far as the "Materials" Patent is concerned), Ceylon (in respect of the heating device and the "Materials" Patent), Chili, Columbia, Hong Kong, India, Jamaica, Japan ("Materials" Patent), Mauritius (the "Materials" Patent), Mexico, Mysore (in respect of the heating device and "Materials" Patents), Natal, Peru, Queensland, Straits Settlements, Tasmania, Transvaal, Uruguay, and Western Australia.

Temple, February 2nd, 1899.

J. FLETCHER MOULTON.
ARTHUR COLEFAX.

This Company acquires from the Vendors the right to apply for Patent Rights in the countries comprised in the continents of Australasia, Africa, Asia, South and Central America and the islands adjacent, of which Patent Rights have already been granted for Argentine, Cape Colony, Egypt, New South Wales, New Zealand, South Australia, Venezuela, and Victoria. Applications have also been made for Patent Rights for the other countries mentioned in the opinion of Messrs. J. Fletcher Moulton and Arthur Colefax.

These territories are so vast that the field of operations, considering the present rapid development of electric lighting throughout the world, is practically unlimited.

Among the Cities within the Company's sphere are Melbourne, Sydney, Auckland, Brisbane, Hobart Town, Dunedin, Coolgardie, Geelong, Adelaide, Perth, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Kimberley, Bloemfontein, Johannesburg, Pretoria, Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Bulawayo, Delagoa Bay, Cairo, Alexandria, Smvrna, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Hong Kong, Shanghai, Peking, Canton, Tokio, Singapore, Tobolsk, Mysore, Kingston, Port Louis, City of Mexico, Guatemala, Caracas, Rio de Janeiro, Pernambuco, Lima, Monte Video, Buenos Ayres, Santiago, and Valparaiso.

The rights of this invention, other than those held by this Company, have been acquired, or are controlled, as under:—

Austria-Hungary, Italy and the Balkan States	Ganz & Co., Limited, Buda-Pesth.
Remaining European Countries	Allgemeine Electricitäts Gesellschaft, Berlin.
North America and Canada	George Westinghouse, Pittsburgh, Pa., and New York.

The above are generally recognised to be three of the leading undertakings in the electrical world.

The Working Capital of £50,000 provided by this issue is considered by the Directors to be ample for present needs, as the operations of the Company should not entail large capital outlay.

The profits of the Company will be principally derived from the manufacture, sale, and rental of Nernst Lamps. Even if the Lamps are sold at prices which will compare favourably with those of Lamps now in use a large profit will result, but owing to the great saving in current, it may reasonably be expected that higher prices will be obtainable. It should further be noted that every lamp fixed becomes a permanent source of profit to the Company.

An additional source of profit may also be found in the formation of sub-Companies and the sale of local concessions.

The Directors therefore believe that not only will the amount (£9,800) required to pay dividends on the Preference Shares be earned, but that these Shares will further benefit by participation in profits remaining after provision has been made for the dividend on the Ordinary Shares, and for the Reserve Fund.

The Memoranda and Articles of Association and the above contracts, report, and opinion may be seen at the offices of the Solicitors to the Company.

Prospectuses and Forms of Application for Shares can be obtained from the Bankers, Brokers, Solicitors, and at the Offices of the Company.
London, February 24th, 1899.

REGISTERED AS A NEWSPAPER.

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